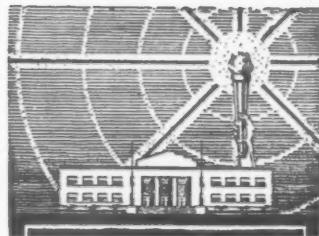


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VOLUME XLV, NUMBER 8

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The Social Studies

VOLUME XLV, NUMBER 8

DECEMBER, 1954

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EDITORIAL AND BUSINESS OFFICE: 809-811 North 19th Street, Philadelphia 30, Pa.
Subscription \$3.50 a year, single numbers 50 cents a copy.

Published monthly, from October to May inclusive, by McKinley Publishing Co., 809-811 North 19th St., Philadelphia, Pa.

Copyright, 1954, McKinley Publishing Co. Entered as second-class matter, October 26, 1909, at Post Office at Philadelphia, Pa., under Act of March 3, 1879

As the Editor Sees It

Many analysts of the American scene have pointed out the importance of one particular factor in explaining why we have become what we are. This is the tendency of Americans to band together in voluntary groups to promote causes. We have a tremendous variety of such organizations. There are the service clubs—Rotary, Kiwanis, Lions, and so on. There are lodges and fraternal groups—Moose, Elks, Shriners, Odd Fellows, and scores of others. There are innumerable civic organizations for the protection of this and the promotion of that. There are political clubs, church societies, literary, musical and amateur dramatic groups, clubs of hobbyists, and so forth.

Probably no one has ever obtained any reliable statistics on how many organizations the average American joins, but it is certainly a considerable figure. It is this urge to join with others for mutual or civic betterment that so distinguishes us from the citizens of European nations. It has been customary for certain types of writers to sneer at American "joiners," and to imply that the whole tendency is due to a lack of self-sufficiency and inner resource, which drives us to form societies and clubs with others like us. However this may be, the results of cooperative activity are astounding. Churches, hospitals, parks and other projects grow from such sources; aid goes out to the needy, the ill, the handicapped and to children generally. Because of our voluntary groups we have better schools, better highways, better cultural facilities and even better government. In the nations of Europe these things have come, if at all, by inheritance from the past, by the philanthropy of the rich, by action of a paternal government, or, occasionally, by revolution. We feel that our critics attribute too much of our prosperity to greed and natural bounty, and not enough to the willingness of people to band together and do things by joint effort. The local bloodmobile, the small town library, the teen-age canteen, the community ambulance, the Little League baseball teams—

such things as these are the result of voluntary cooperative time, effort and money.

When Americans feel a need for something, they form a committee, or they bring the idea before one of the groups to which they belong. Sooner or later, the project is carried out. It may be worthwhile, or it may not. But the combined effort that produced it was dynamic democracy, the kind of applied energy which has made America the kind of country it is. The process of mutual action toward a goal, on a *voluntary* basis, was of real value to the participants, and probably to the community. How different this is from the Communist way of life! Behind the Iron Curtain, spontaneous and voluntary activity toward a civic objective would be immediately suspect if it occurred. Actually it is difficult to imagine it happening, for the Communist doctrine so thoroughly inculcates the idea of all direction and initiative coming from the State, that one can hardly conceive of the Russian equivalent of a Rotary Club or a Parent-Teacher Association.

What has all this to do with schools and the social studies? We believe that it is the duty of the schools to teach youngsters about the American way of life, its good and its bad. We believe that they should be made to understand the reasons and values behind American customs and traditions, to be taught how we have achieved what we have—at least those things of which we are proud. We believe that they should be taught about the ideal of civic service. Let them study the phenomenon of social betterment as it touches their families and communities. Let them see how they themselves are better off because their parents have joined and worked with clubs, fraternal societies and service organizations. As they come to understand this American way of doing things, they will be, in their turn, better and more useful citizens. The gregarious instinct always exists, but no nation has put it to such good use as we. Each generation must pave the way for its successors, and the school can help in this, as in so many other ways.

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General Education and Government by Lobby Groups

HAROLD H. PUNKE

Alabama Polytechnic Institute, Auburn, Alabama

Since the early 1930's a great deal has been said about education for cooperation, and about the need for a democratic society to develop in youth an understanding of social organization and a desire and capacity to work with others on a voluntary basis. Democracy emphasizes the voluntary feature of cooperation, in contrast with a forced working together which exists under most dictatorships—and which disintegrates if coercion is relaxed. Cooperation therefore stresses the achievements of the individual through conscious effort to work with others, rather than through working alone or without particular regard to what others do. Because of the growing importance of large organized groups in the social and political activities of the United States, it is important for the general education of American citizens to examine the nature of such groups and the ways in which they function.

Nature of Organized Groups and of the Democratic State

When one works cooperatively with others he works as a member of a group which has been formed on a somewhat voluntary basis. If there are many persons in the group, considerable attention must be given to internal organization and to the division of labor among them. Except in cases of disaster which destroys an entire group, some members of a group survive other members—whether non-survival relates to death or to other reasons. Because the group as an organized body survives the individual member, the group develops long-range or perpetual interests which cannot become the personal interests of individual members in the same way that they are group interests. The individual can only share those interests temporarily, or become a temporary

custodian of them. Perhaps in a sense cooperative activity thus offers the individual one avenue to a limited immortality in making it possible for him to identify himself with group interests and achievements which reach beyond his own lifetime.

Since group interests are ordinarily long-range interests, they are usually formulated in more general terms than individual or personal interests—although in some cases a dominant individual may almost make his own personal interests become the *stated* interests of the group. Nevertheless the interests of every individual or small group are to some extent interests of the state because every person is socially a piece of the state. Hence the state that is most likely to have a long and fairly stable existence is one that finds it possible to give consideration to individuals and small groups as well as to groups which at the moment are large or more potent as lobby forces in shaping immediate developments. Minor groups are important because any political state of importance exists over a considerable span of time, which makes it possible for the cumulative effect of small but persistent influences to show up. Therefore it appears that all possible consequences of group actions eventually accrue to the state. This fact is probably more significant for national states which have a heterogeneous population and cultural background than for states which are fairly homogeneous in these respects.

In a democratic society an individual may belong to several different groups. In many instances he has a problem of choosing among the available groups to which he might belong and devote his resources. Consciously or unconsciously he therefore develops a scale of values concerning the importance of different groups for him—and from time to time spe-

cific groups change positions on the scale. With wide opportunity to join groups and to shift from one group to another, one would expect groups to change in size. However it seems likely that some groups will always be small while others will be relatively large. When a group becomes especially large or powerful it becomes an important force in social control and regulation. Under such conditions the group really acts as a political party—whether it ordinarily passes as such or passes as a professional, labor, business, or religious organization.

When revolutionary forces set up "new" governments, they never give quite equal consideration to all the varied elements within the borders of the resulting state. Moreover they always borrow a great many ideas and regulations from the government which immediately preceded them—and from other governments. Nevertheless for the time being the revolutionary force constitutes the lawmaking power of the new state. After a group once gets into power it usually becomes one of its primary objectives to remain in power, and to do so it must usually compromise some of its advertised aims and some of its promises to the people.

Since the growth of national states in Western Europe, and the separation of church and state in the United States, it has become an axiom of social and political philosophy in this country that the political state must be supreme among the different organized forces and groups of the nation—in contrast with an ecclesiastic, military, or business-controlled state, and that all other groups must therefore be subsidiary to it. Unless the state can maintain its physical supremacy at home, it cannot effectively exert its creative strength in the home culture nor act as an authoritative spokesman for its people in international affairs. However, within the inclusive framework set up by the founders of this republic, and the subsequent development of regulations and institutions, each general election changes somewhat the political complexion of the national state—the United States government. Each subsidiary group helps determine the nature of these changes—helps mold the form of the continuously changing state.

Long-Term Interests of Strong Subsidiary Groups

During early colonial days organized religion was more important in determining the complexion of the state than it has been during most of our life as an independent nation, although during the last two or three decades considerable upsurge in the political vigor of organized religion seems to have appeared—especially where the church hierarchy is strongly organized both nationally and internationally. Religious organizations are similar to the state in the sense that the group continues beyond the lifetime of the individual. Therefore this group can, and for its survival it must, devote more of its time to long-range objectives. This fact is particularly well recognized by the Catholic church, which has carried on as an organized institution or "form of government" longer than most present-day political states. The fact does not seem to be quite so clearly recognized by some Protestant denominations.

Probably the type of group organization that has become politically most important within the United States during the past half century is the business and industrial corporation. Such corporations carry on from decade to decade, under charter provisions, although their members or shareholders may change from day to day. Because the corporation may have a long-term existence which is comparable to that of the state, it must interest itself in long-range social developments and particularly in the long-range consequence of its own acts. Since the business corporation is an enduring entity, like the state or like an organized religious system, all possible consequences of its actions will eventually accrue to it. It is by long-range planning, which gives detailed consideration to the widest possible scope of such consequences, that the corporation has the best prospects of surviving future decades of social change.

The governing bodies of many business and industrial corporations do not yet seem to understand this long-range implication of group behavior in contrast with individual behavior, when they try to advance the welfare of the corporation—in accordance with the profit motive. Hence they tend to emphasize immediate profits, much as might be expected of the individual owner whose planning is re-

stricted to a period covered by his own lifetime. When through an inadequately developed business outlook this highly individualistic economic philosophy is carried over into corporate practice, it not only prevents the maximum benefit or profit which the corporation in the long run might secure for its members or shareholders but it also prevents the maximum service which the corporation could render to society in general.

No organization can prosper in the long run unless the general population from whom it draws its membership, or on whom it otherwise depends for its support, is continuously prosperous. This is true whether the organization is the state, a church hierarchy, business corporation, labor or professional organization, or some other group. Therefore it would seem that, if life in America becomes more highly organized, in the sense that the individual achieves prosperity and satisfaction more largely as a member of different groups than on an individual basis, more of the activities of the individual would constitute parts of some group plan. Hence there should be less conflict and confusion among the activities of different persons, and among activities of the same person at different times, than where there is no coordination by the group. To the extent to which there is also coordination among groups, conflict and confusion would be further reduced.

Much of what has been said concerning religious organizations and business corporations applies also to labor unions, professional associations, farmer organizations, and similar groups. As these subsidiary groups develop long-range or perpetual interests comparable to those of the state, they should recognize their long-range responsibilities concerning the general public welfare. This means that the social policy of such groups must reflect a constructive interest in public welfare, not merely in the welfare of their own members or their immediate supporters. When this long-range interest in the public welfare is recognized, the aims of the subsidiary groups should become more nearly identical with the interests of the state. Business and industrial corporations must accordingly become interested in the income and the welfare needs not only of their own employees and stockholders but of the

public generally. Organized labor, farmers, and professional groups must develop similar interests in the general public. All of the foregoing groups should be concerned about the uses made of the nation's accumulated capital and its labor potential, as well as about the availability to the people generally of the material goods and services that are essential for a high level of physical comfort and satisfaction. These groups should also be concerned about the growth of intellectual freedom and competence that is essential for developing the capacity for independent thinking among the people generally on which a democratic society rests. Under conditions such as those suggested, the state would probably be more clearly recognized than at present as the top regulative agency, and probably the agency with top or frontier responsibility for research and experimentation—with findings intended to be made generally available for the best use of the people as a whole.

Some evidence is appearing that a few large organizations in such fields as agriculture, industrial production, distribution, labor, and professional services are recognizing their long-range dependence on the welfare and prosperity of the people generally. At present, however, too much of the guiding philosophy of such organizations is geared to the individualistic or lone-wolf conception of society with its horizons restricted to possibilities which the individual can accomplish within his lifetime. *Understanding the Group and the International Scene*

The increasing importance of the role of the United States in international affairs further complicates the picture—regarding long-range consequences of group action. It means that organizations such as those indicated must not only consider the long-range welfare of the people of the United States but of the world as a whole. Much has been written in the last few years about the United States being thrust into a position in which it must play the role of a leading world power—while still trying to function with the psychology and attitudes of provincialism. This has been particularly emphasized with respect to "lend-lease," international loans, tariffs, and export-import trade arrangements. Americans are gradually getting the idea that if people in foreign countries ever

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repay loans extended from this country it will be through goods which this country imports from them or through services rendered to American citizens abroad. When critics say that the United States will have to grow from its provincial policy of isolation concerning international affairs to a policy of carrying the responsibility of a leading world power, they are saying roughly the same thing regarding the provincialism of the federal government in world affairs that foregoing paragraphs have said about the individualism of business corporations, farmers, labor unions, and professional organizations within the national economy. It seems obvious that the foreign policy of the United States must increasingly recognize the closeness with which the welfare of the American people is bound up with that of people of the world generally, much as the business corporation, vocational organizations, and other large groups within this country must recognize that their own long-range prosperity depends on the continuous prosperity and improving welfare of the American people as a whole.

Since the federal government is recognized as the nation's most significant agency for connections which citizens and subordinate groups of this country have with individuals and groups of other countries, one should expect the various offices and agencies of the federal government to work more comprehensively and more closely with business corporations, farmers and other agricultural groups, labor and professional groups, as well as with other organizations in helping to develop the civilizations of other countries and to improve the welfare of their people. There has been considerable reference to Point Four of President Truman's Inaugural Address of January 20, 1949, as suggesting a direction which might be taken by the development mentioned. However, no attempt will be made here to analyze the implications of Point Four.

Group Organization and General Education

The situation described in foregoing paragraphs has several implications for education at both secondary and college levels. The intelligent American citizen, regardless of his vocation, should understand the nature of group organization and how groups of different kinds come into existence in a democratic society. He

should understand the conditions under which a group remains fairly stable in size and the conditions under which its size is likely to change rapidly. The astute citizen should also recognize the ways in which different organized groups become political influences—without particular regard to how vociferously their leaders and spokesmen proclaim that the organizations have no political motives, but exist solely to promote some professional, religious, scientific, or fraternal interest apart from political implications.

Formal legislation has recognized the business corporation as "an artificial person" that exists in perpetuity more clearly than has been the case regarding other groups, but the business corporation has much in common with several other strong subsidiary groups. When large organized groups become as powerful as they are today in the United States and in some other parts of the world, and when strong organizations relate to as large a part of our social and economic structure as is true at the present time, it is necessary to understand group organization and functioning in order to understand the nature of government and to share intelligently in the responsibilities of a democratic society. When the growing role of the United States in international affairs is considered, the need for some understanding of the relationships among groups of nations also becomes apparent—for an intelligent exercise of citizenship in this country.

American education has not given enough consideration to the fact that more abstraction and a higher level of intellectual activity are necessary for one to think in terms of organized groups than for him to think in terms of individual personalities. A personality is concrete and can be understood through direct contact with the person concerned and through comparison with other persons whom one knows. On the other hand a group is usually an invisible arrangement or organization among such personalities. For an understanding of most groups it is necessary to read and analyze various kinds of reports and statistical tabulations—regarding membership, funds, activities, and alleged purposes. Development of the capacity to think in terms of organized groups—to acquire and analyze the types of information involved, as well as development of the

willingness to put forth the effort required, are to a large extent responsibilities of high schools and colleges.

Since thinking is a process that takes place within an individual human organism, rather than among organisms in some form of group arrangement, it is essential that the willingness, capacity, and liberty of the average individual to think analytically be developed and be preserved. With the prominence of organized groups that has been emphasized throughout this discussion there is a danger that persons who become leaders of groups will do most of the nation's critical thinking, will formulate conclusions which are in the short-run interests of the particular group, and will use group pressure to get the conclusions accepted—first by members of the particular group, then by others. This outcome seems likely, unless it is recognized and circumvented, in part because analytical thinking is a strenuous task. Hence people are likely to engage in the task only when they see promise of rewards which seem to justify the effort. This is apparent in regard to the individual members of some subsidiary groups who busy themselves completely with the vocational and other details of the day and thus leave the major thinking responsibilities to others. At a somewhat different level it is as likely to occur in the case of the group leader who is so concerned about details of the short-range welfare of his particular group that he does not arrive at the

larger understanding that in the long run his group cannot prosper unless other persons and groups do so. The similarity in long-range interests, among groups which seem to be in conflict over immediate objectives, or perhaps methods, has been noted at various points in this article.

Although educational institutions have limitations in regard to developing the perspective as well as the capacity and the willingness to think, on the part of both group leaders and the rank and file of group members and non-members, such institutions nevertheless constitute the best instruments that American society now has for the purpose. Effort should be made to strengthen these institutions for rendering this service.

The type of understanding and the related attitudes which are noted regarding social structure and group activity are not trade training or part of a special curriculum which is peculiar to one or a few vocations. They are fundamental in the education which all intelligent citizens of a democracy need if they are to act discriminately in discharging their civic responsibilities in a society in which organized groups play as large a part as they do in this and other Western nations. One needs this education both in regard to his functioning within groups of which he is a member as well as in regard to groups which reflect interests that he as an individual may want to oppose.

The Tax Court of the United States

FRANK MEYER

Junior High School, Grand Haven, Michigan

The Tax Court of the United States had pending before it in November, 1953 a total of 11,800 cases involving a matter of \$1 billion. Not another court in the world must consider litigation in this amount of money. And 6,000 new cases come to the court each year.¹

The Tax Court has its headquarters on the second floor of the Internal Revenue building in Washington. It is not, however, a division

of the Bureau of Internal Revenue, nor of the Treasury Department. Neither is it a court in the judicial branch of the government. Yet it functions as a court and is concerned solely with internal revenue.

The Tax Court of the United States is an independent agency in the executive branch of the government which must render a judicial decision in disputes between taxpayers and the

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Collector of Internal Revenue. In so doing it assumes all the characteristics of a court; it performs no administrative duties.

Its work begins when there is a dispute between the taxpayer and the Collector which can not be settled by revenue agents or officials within the Bureau. The taxpayer may appeal to this court before he pays a disputed assessment of income, estate, gift, excess-profit taxes, or other internal revenue. Most of the court's cases involve the interpretation of the law. The disputes concern the meaning and intent of the law. Of course, the facts in each case must be ascertained, and there are cases where an attempt at fraud is evident.

The court is composed of 16 judges appointed by the President (the Senate consenting) for a term of 12 years with reappointment permissible. The annual salary is \$15,000. The group elects one of its members to be Chief Judge for a two-year term.

The court acts through divisions which today consist of one judge. It does not as a whole body hear a given case. Most of the court sessions are held away from Washington in key cities throughout the country as an accommodation to taxpayers. The judge hears the case without a jury while a stenographic record is made. Briefs may then be filed by both parties. Following this and after much study, the trial judge writes out his findings of fact and an opinion supporting his decision. This is sent to the chief judge with a recommendation for one of three courses of action. The opinion may be reviewed by the full court; it may be published as a division opinion, or it may be entered as a memorandum opinion.

The chief judge reviews the opinion, possibly suggesting minor changes, and then must decide what happens to the case. If this is a novel one of real importance where the court could take divergent views of the problem, he will have it reviewed by the full court. This is to obtain consistency in interpretation and to accomplish a uniform application of the tax laws throughout the nation. All the judges in Washington at the time (9 for a quorum) meet practically every Friday to study these cases. From 10 to 15 per cent of all cases heard go to the full court for review.

The opinions so approved and those pub-

lished as a division opinion are printed in book form and become precedents for future cases. The Reports of the Tax Court are found in many libraries and references to them are abbreviated as 18 T. C. 182. This means that the case cited may be found on page 182 of volume 18 of the court reports. The opinions in the least important cases (not valuable as precedents) are mimeographed only and copies given to the parties involved. Those dissatisfied with the judgment of this court may carry the case to a United States court of appeals, and on to the Supreme Court.

Chief Judge Kern maintains that there is no other court in the world just like this one. It is to provide for judicial intervention in the administrative process of collecting taxes. While it is technically not a court, the U. S. Supreme Court cites more of its cases than those of any other subordinate court. The highest judicial body has called it the "Court of the Exchequer" and the "Tribunal of Experts." Furthermore, the Tax Court is a peculiar combination of a trial and an appellate court. It hears original testimony, but its opinions establish precedents as only those of an appellate court can do. Moreover, its judges must not only determine the facts in a case and the lawful rights and obligations of the litigants but must see what the results are tax-wise by the imposition of the tax statutes.

Cases are scheduled all year except in July and August. In New York City the court has its own courtroom and sits there every other week. Judges are in Detroit three times a year and should be in southern California six times a year. There are two courtrooms in Washington. While the court has held hearings in over 50 cities and it "fixes the times and places for its hearings in order to secure reasonable opportunity to taxpayers to be heard with as little inconvenience and expense as is practicable,"² budgetary limitations have required it to sit only in major cities. A taxpayer may come to Washington for the trial if he wishes, and undoubtedly would have his case heard more quickly. No personal appearance is required, however; a case may be submitted entirely on briefs without oral argument.

Congress appropriated \$970,000 for the operation of the Tax Court for the current fiscal year. The judges have asked for \$1,053,

000 for next year but understand that the Budget Bureau will recommend \$1 million. The court's staff consists of 135 employees. A total of 40,000 attorneys have been admitted to practice before it.

The court is empowered to appoint commissioners to hear some cases. This is usually done if there is to be a long trial in order to develop the facts. Three senior attorneys have been made "Commissioners" and report their findings of fact to a judge for disposition of the case. Judge Kern said that his court had no intention of turning the hearings over to commissioners. "We pride ourselves on hearing the witnesses," he said. This is very important when the questions of fact may depend on the credibility of the witnesses.

The court was established by the Revenue Act of 1924, signed by President Coolidge on June 2 of that year, and was known first as the "Board of Tax Appeals." Its name was changed by an amendment to the law signed on October 21, 1942. Prior to the establishment of the Board, a taxpayer who disputed the assessment of the Collector of Internal Revenue had to pay the amount in dispute and then sue in the district courts or the Court of Claims to recover his money. This was cumbersome and costly, and it often meant that a taxpayer had large sums of money tied up unjustly. It could and did mean bankruptcy in some cases. The Congress believed that it was far more just and fair to taxpayers to have an adjudication of the dispute before the tax was paid than to try to recover after it was paid. The Report of the Ways and Means Committee of February 11, 1924 stated that "the right of appeal after payment of the tax is an incomplete remedy, and does little to remove the hardship occasioned by an incorrect assessment."³ Furthermore, the new court (board) would relieve the district courts of these special cases which often involved highly technical problems. Also, the new court would establish precedents which would be uniformly applied throughout the country.

Before the court (board) was set up in 1924, the Commissioner of Internal Revenue had instituted a "Committee on Appeals and Review" in his own Bureau. This group heard the taxpayers' appeals prior to the payment of

the tax, but Congress did not feel that this sufficiently protected the taxpayers. The same Committee Report pointed out that officials of the Bureau checked on the Bureau and there was no review by an impartial outside body. Likewise, the person who was to protect the government's interest was asked to decide the dispute, and taxpayers were usually forced to come to Washington, an expense and burdensome procedure. The court was established, therefore, solely for the protection of the rights of the taxpayer. So today this court is of great significance to every citizen. "Practically everybody is a potential litigant and anyone can obtain judicial determination before he pays his tax," Judge Kern points out.

The material above has been presented in the hope that it will assist teachers in explaining *The Tax Court*. The following are summaries of a few cases which will illustrate the work of the court.

Its first case was decided on August 27, 1924. A Mr. Parrott received a salary as general superintendent from the American Coal Company. In 1920 his company distributed to him an additional \$35,000 which he did not report as income on the basis that it was a gift. The Commissioner said it was part of gross income as part of his salary. The court held with the Commissioner that it was a bonus paid "for the purpose of rewarding the officer for long and faithful service."⁴

During its first year as "The Tax Court," a distributor of school textbooks in Georgia had an argument with the Collector over the meaning of the "accrual basis" for determining income. He sold books to the State of Georgia. He received them from many publishers, stored them, distributed them, and collected for them. In the year involved, he did all of these things except collect the money. The State was behind in its payments because of the lack of revenue. The distributor was paying his income tax on an accrual basis, but he insisted that he was not to pay a tax on money (income) until he actually received it. The Collector wanted the tax paid on the commissions *earned* during the year, whether payment had been received or not. The court agreed with the Collector and said, "It is the right to receive money which in accrual accounting justifies the accrual of

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money receivable and its return as accrual income."⁵

In the *Lovett Case*, the court had to decide whether a mother and foster father furnished over one-half the support of the mother's two minor sons in 1947. The Collector wanted \$200 more in taxes because the boys' real father paid their mother \$816 toward their support. The mother claimed it cost her a total of \$1522.80 to have the boys cared for by another family. However, of the \$816, only \$576 was for current alimony, the remaining \$240 being paid because of a court order to pay up an arrearage. Should this \$240 be considered as received for the 1947 support as the Collector claimed? The court said it was not, and should not be considered in determining whether the present parents paid one-half the support of the children.⁶

A Michigan manufacturer's agent in 1947 ran a successful business and filed an income

tax return as an individual proprietorship. He and his wife together owned a farm which suffered a loss of \$6,208 for the year. In filing separate returns on the farm income he claimed the entire loss and she claimed none. The Collector allocated half the loss to the man and half to his wife on their separate returns. Under Michigan law where property is owned by husband and wife, one half of net income is taxable to each on separate returns. The court held that to be consistent, a net loss should be allocated one half to each party.⁷

¹ Chief Judge John W. Kern: Statement to writer on November 24, 1953. Much of the information herein is from Judge Kern.

² Rules of Practice before The Tax Court of the United States. Page 37. (This booklet may be obtained from the Superintendent of Documents for 20¢.)

³ House Report 179 (68th Congress, 1st Session)

Page 7.

⁴ 1 B.T.A. 1.

⁵ 1 T.C. 463 (Jan. 19, 1943).

⁶ 18 T.C. 477 (June 9, 1952).

⁷ 18 T.C. 385 (May 22, 1952).

Social Studies at Humboldt High School*

DOROTHY GREEN, et al.

Humboldt High School, St. Paul Minnesota

Today, more than ever before, it is important that all youth receive experiences which will lead toward more effective city, state, national and world citizenship. This is the principal task of the social science teacher.

The capacity to assimilate this kind of training varies greatly, so teachers will find it necessary to adjust their assignments and requirements, making it possible for each pupil to gain as much as he can from the study of social science.

Fixed standards of achievement which cause pupils of low scholastic ability to fail or drop out of school will defeat the objectives of the school. The effective teacher will adjust class work to match the varying abilities of the pupils and thus prevent failure and discouragement among them.

On all levels, the classroom teacher will pro-

vide learning experiences which will develop an understanding of and an appreciation for the established truths and accepted values which are the American heritage. Likewise, the teacher will provide opportunities to analyze current problems at the maturity level of the pupils; to discriminate between fact and opinion, evidence and proof, truth and propaganda, and to respect the rights and opinions of others. Controversial topics that involve sharp differences of viewpoint based on cherished religious beliefs will be avoided. This does not mean that controversial issues may not be mentioned or considered. When such topics come up, the teacher will assume a role of impartiality and under no circumstances will he promote a particular point of view.

The social studies should cultivate in the minds and hearts of the pupils a love of country, an appreciation of the great American heritage, a wholesome respect for their fellow-

* This synopsis was prepared by the Humboldt Social Studies Department, of which Mrs. Green is chairman.

men and for the lawfully constituted authority under which they live, and a desire to live good, purposeful lives.

The social studies will also provide opportunities for democratic self-control in the classroom and strive to develop a spirit of tolerance toward all racial and nationality groups.

Assistance should be given students in learning how to read social science material properly. Textbooks and reference books often are compact bodies of factual statements and are not easily read and understood. To identify learning with the mere mastery of the contents of any textbook may discourage students from even attempting the type of reading that is required for most of the materials which they will encounter in books and magazines. Encouragement and practice should be given students to help them become independent readers and, insofar as possible, effective readers, so that they may develop into independent thinkers. To be able to distinguish between different types of reading materials and to select appropriate methods of dealing with each should also be taught.

Wherever possible there should be pupil-teacher planning of units, for it offers the greatest potentialities for developing self-reliance and cooperation.

There should be deliberate teaching aimed at the development of desirable moral and spiritual values. Wherever religion is treated, it should be treated with respect. Emphasis should be placed on the important role that religion has played in the history and development of mankind. The common belief of man in God and in the brotherhood of man should be stressed. Wherever possible, the classroom teacher should reinforce the spiritual work of the church and the home. Emphasis on religious differences should be avoided.

The chief emphasis in the ninth grade is on the orientation of the student so that he may have an insight and understanding in regard to the relationship of the individual to the social institutions and activity in life going on about him, with particular attention to the school, the local community and the state.

World history in the tenth grade should place emphasis on recent developments. To obtain greater perspective, the use of materials gathered from many and varied sources should

be encouraged. If individual students wish to study certain aspects of history in detail in order to satisfy their interests, this should be done by giving special assignments for extra credit. The work of the tenth grade does not aim to give minute information, but rather it offers an over-view of human progress as a background of understanding present-day developments. All that is possible, in the time allowed, is to build a background for an understanding of current world problems.

Pupils enter the eleventh grade with some knowledge of American history acquired in earlier grades. The aim is to build upon that knowledge not for the sake of adding more facts, but rather for guiding pupils in intelligent and critical thinking. By reading more widely and making use of other media, pupils will become more and better acquainted with the chief activities associated with the development of our country. They will become more aware of the fact that they, too, must assume responsibility in perpetuating our American ideas and ideals.

The twelfth grade student should learn to study life in its many aspects—economic, political, and social. Emphasis should be placed on present day happenings. It should be expected that by the end of the twelfth year, students will have learned how to analyze, to synthesize, to compare, to infer, and to generalize their information. They should be able to evaluate evidence independently. If a proper background has been developed, the students should be able to propose alternatives for problems already solved and to suggest solutions for some of the unsolved social problems. By the end of the year the students should make tentative conclusions as to the course of action they expect to take as young adults in our democratic society. Some time may be given to vocational guidance. An understanding and appreciation of group relationships in the contemporary scene and how these have functioned in other lands should help each to know the importance and necessity of cooperation in all activities if we expect democracy to be maintained.

PUPIL CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES

9TH GRADE SOCIAL STUDIES

Approximately 40 per cent of the class time will be devoted to reading the textbook and

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pertinent supplementary material. Most of the time the reading will be silent and will be directed by questions formulated by the teacher. Occasionally, where the class will benefit, reading may be done aloud. Reading will be directed toward discovering the point of view, toward critically evaluating what is read, toward comparing viewpoints, toward interpreting what is read, or toward gathering, sorting and verifying ideas in support of a viewpoint.

About 20 per cent of the class time, or one day each week, will be devoted to reading about and discussing current events. However, it is not intended that only one day in any given week may be devoted to current topics. From time to time, world affairs or topics of national interest may be so pertinent or so interesting that a whole week might be given over to this area. Nor is it intended that the teacher will set aside any particular day of the week.

Thirty per cent of the class time will be given to field trips, listening to speakers, making oral reports, listening to or participating in panel discussions, watching and evaluating pertinent films, writing and speaking on aspects of a topic under consideration and the holding of mock elections and dramatizations.

WORLD HISTORY—GRADE 10

Pupil Classroom Activities

About fifty per cent of the class time will be devoted to the reading of magazines, reference books, the textbook and other pertinent materials. Generally, this reading will be silent and under the direction of the teacher. Occasionally, where the whole class will benefit, reading may be aloud. The reading will be directed toward discovering the authors' point of view, toward comparing various viewpoints, toward interpreting what is read, toward critically evaluating what is read, toward gathering, sorting and verifying ideas to support a viewpoint or to explain a topic.

The balance of the class time will be devoted to watching and evaluating pertinent movies; listening to live speakers, radio programs, tape recordings, etc.; engaging in committee meetings in preparation for a group contribution toward the topic or unit under consideration; class discussion; the giving of oral reports; the holding of mock elections or sessions of the

United Nations; dramatizations, and to tests and quizzes.

Course of Study

The content of the course as well as the activities will be organized as a series of topical resource units focusing on present-day world areas and problems. Each topic treated should be important to the United States and to the pupils as individuals and should help the pupils understand present-day world situations. Although chronology will not be ignored, the consideration of world events *will not be chronological*, nor will the order of chapters in the textbook determine the sequence of topics.

AMERICAN HISTORY—GRADE 11

Pupil Classroom Activities

About 35 per cent of the classroom time will be devoted to reading, studying and using reference books, magazines, the textbook and other sources. Generally, this reading will be silent and directed toward learning to gather, sort, verify and report ideas in support of a viewpoint; toward discovering a point of view or bias; toward the preparation of oral or written reports; or toward preparation for class evaluation and discussion of a topic. The study will be guided and supervised by the teacher. The class will be encouraged to develop and practice the habit of consulting a variety of sources in gathering material and will be assisted in learning to read social science material.

At least 15 per cent of the classroom time will be devoted to the practice and development of the habit and skill of attentive, thoughtful listening and the evaluation of what is heard. For this purpose, speakers will be brought into the classroom, radio programs and recordings will be listened to and topics will be discussed in front of the class by individuals, by panels and by committees.

The balance of the classroom time will be given to keeping and discussing a bulletin board on pertinent current affairs, watching and evaluating movies pertinent to the area under discussion, dramatizing and watching dramatizations (such as mock elections, sessions of the United Nations, scenes from history) presented by members of the class, drawing maps and charts, making posters or models, making scrapbooks, writing compositions, planning assemblies, going on field trips.

debating the topic under consideration and other activities that will give the variety necessary to provide for differences in interest and ability. Some time, of course, will be reserved for quizzes and tests.

SENIOR SOCIAL SCIENCE—GRADE 12
Pupil Classroom Activities

Approximately half of the classroom time will be devoted to listening to speakers brought into the classroom; listening to and evaluating topics presented to the class through radio programs and tape recordings; watching and evaluating pertinent movies; holding mock elections or sessions of the United Nations or other acts which give the class experience in reaching decisions as a group; consulting a great variety of sources to gather material pertinent to a topic; gathering, sorting, verifying and reporting ideas to support a viewpoint; reading of a newspaper or other current events publications for evaluation in class discussion; reading books, magazines, newspapers in preparation for oral or written reports; studying to interpret; discussing school conduct and citizenship;

engaging in panel discussions before the class and/or evaluating panel discussions; speaking to present another's point of view; keeping a bulletin board for school display; and taking pertinent field trips.

About 25 per cent of the class time will be given over to reading the textbook silently under the supervision and direction of the teacher; reading to discover a point of view or bias; debating and evaluating the debate on the topic under consideration; engaging in committee meetings in preparation for a committee contribution to the topic under consideration; speaking to persuade another to one's point of view; keeping, discussing and evaluating a bulletin board for classroom display; and taking tests or quizzes.

The balance of the classroom time will be used for oral reports in front of the class; answering aloud questions based on assigned reading; reading the textbook aloud under the supervision and direction of the teacher; reporting on the lives of "giants" in American history; and drawing pertinent maps, charts, etc.

Using the Source Method to Teach the Economic Reconstruction of the South:

A Teaching Unit

R. EUGENE MORSE

Junior High School, Bowling Green, Ohio

PART I
1865-1877

It is my purpose to teach the Economic Reconstruction of the South to a group of boys and girls of the eleventh and twelfth grades. There will be about thirty-five in the class and their background will be distinctly northern.

My point of view is that of "what mattered then." I shall therefore endeavor to make the past real to the extent that the pupil will see and feel as people saw and felt in the years from 1865 to 1877. To the extent that the pupil reacts as they reacted to like conditions in the past, I shall feel that I have accomplished my

purpose. The best way to do this would be to turn back the hands of time and set the class down in the midst of the southern society of that period, but, since this is impossible, we shall read what contemporaries were saying and doing, we shall read what they later said, and we shall read what later students have contributed to the understanding of this phase of Reconstruction. Then by means of our discussions, topic reports, questions, and map studies we shall expect to reconstruct this period with some measure of success.

Mimeographed copies of the material contained in Part II of this paper will be given all the pupils. In addition we shall have avail-

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able for reference copies of the following books:

- Dunning, W. A. *Reconstruction, Political and Economic* (American Nation Series — ed. A. B. Hart) New York, 1907
- Fleming, W. L. *Documentary History of Reconstruction* Volumes I and II Cleveland 1906
- Garner, J. W. *Reconstruction in Mississippi* New York 1901
- Herbert, H. A. *Why the Solid South* Baltimore 1890
- McCulloch, Hugh *Men and Measures of Half a Century* New York 1888
- Noyes, A. D. *Thirty Years of American Finance* New York 1898
- Rhodes, James Ford. *History of the United States Since the Compromise of 1850* New York 1904

We shall spend two sixty-minute periods in class discussion and development, which will require an equal amount of preparation. If the topic is not adequately developed at the end of the second period, we can profitably spend a third period on it.

In assigning this unit of work we shall review briefly the condition of the country as a whole during the last days of the war, pointing out the fact that the struggle had been mainly on Southern ground, and contrasting the return of the Union soldier to a victorious section with that of the Confederate soldier to a conquered one. Then we shall consider the meaning of the word "reconstruction," defining it as "reorganization" or "remaking," in this case the economic life of the South. But why reconstruction? Why reorganize Southern economic life? Why not go back to work and do things as was the custom before the war? Presumably some will say, "That couldn't be done." Then, what conditions made it impossible? This will call for some additional information, and the material in Part II will assist in this respect. This will be given the pupils together with the following general problems and suggestions:

Section I. All should be prepared on the following:

1. Give a description of the economic condition of the South in 1865 with examples to support what you say.
2. Explain at least two ways in which the gov-

ernment made it harder for the Southerner to make a living.

3. Contrast the report of General Grant with that of Carl Schurz.
4. Is it a mistake to "include the enfranchisement of the slaves" in calculating the losses of the South? Explain your answer. (Part II, pp. 9-11)
5. How did the whites of the South receive their new status?
6. What characteristics did the Negroes manifest in their new freedom?
7. What was the general feeling of the Southerners about the Negro's future?
8. Were the "Black Codes" justifiable?
9. How were they interpreted in the North? What was the outcome?
10. What came to be the leading method of agricultural labor?
11. The term "carpet-bagger" has what meaning? (Dunning p. 116)
12. On an outline map of the United States show the changes in cotton production that took place between 1870 and 1877. Use the figures and charts in your mimeographed material.
13. How did railroad mileage of 1865 compare with that of 1877?
14. Read Herbert, pages 51 to 53, to get an idea of how railroads were financed.
15. W. L. Fleming in *The South in the Building of the Nation*, Vol. VI, 11, says that the key to the South's slow recovery is found, (1) in the inefficiency of Negro labor, (2) mis-government of the reconstructionists. Give examples to support this view.
16. Name at least five results of economic reconstruction.
17. What would you say was the fundamental factor in the economic and social situation of the South during this period? (Dunning p. 12)
18. Did all Southerners regret the emancipation of the slaves in 1877?
19. Explain the break-up of the plantations into small farms. (Fleming, II, 321-324)
20. Section II. Optional Class reports.
1. How the carpetbag and Negro rule affect the economic life of the South. (Dunning, pp. 205-219; Fleming, Vol. II, pp. 39-58, 60-68; Garner, pp. 186-193, 412-414; Herbert, pp. 88-92; Rhodes, Vol. VI, pp. 90-91.)

2. What is meant by the term "Solid South" and why it came to be. (Herbert, any chapter on the states.)
 3. How the relation between the races has been changed since emancipation. (Fleming, Vol. II, pp. 269-272, 276-278.)
 4. Give an account of the new labor system which developed in the South. (Mimeo-graphed Sources, pp. 9-11, Garner pp. 133-138.)
 5. Confiscation Frauds. (Fleming, Vol. I, pp. 137-153; Garner, pp. 127-129; McCulloch, p. 234; Rhodes, Vol. V, pp. 85-107, 274, 411)
 6. Cotton Tax (Garner, pp. 131-133)
 7. What intentions governed the Southerners in legislating against the Freedmen? (Fleming, Vol. I, pp. 273-312; Garner, pp. 113-119; Herbert, pp. 29-39; Rhodes, Vol. V, pp. 555-558)
 8. Cost of living, 1865. (Noyes, p. 9)
 9. Why the Ku Klux Klan and the Knights of the White Camelia? (Fleming, Vol. II, pp. 347-354; Garner, pp. 338-353)
 10. Show the picture of the South Carolina Legislature (1868-72) and report on its members. (Fleming, Vol. II, frontispiece)
- Section III. Reading List
 Booker T. Washington, *Up From Slavery* (an autobiography) New York, 1901.

FICTION

Thomas Dixon, *The Clansman*, New York, 1904; *The Leopard's Spots*, 1902.

A. T. Morgan, *Yazoo; or The Picket Line of Freedom in the South*, Washington, 1884.

A. W. Tourgee, *Bricks Without Straw*, Fords; *A Fool's Errand and Invisible Empire*, Fords.

Section I represents the minimum preparation for each member of the class; section II consists of topics for class reports, which those who desire to go deeper into the subject may present to the group; section III is a suggested list of books relating to this phase of history and will not be discussed unless specific questions are raised.

The class period, then, will consist of a discussion of the questions of section I and topic reports on most, if not all, of section II. The pupil will be given full opportunity to make his contribution and to answer any questions by classmates or teacher pertinent to his subject.

Sometime during the period the suggestion may be made that we dramatize a sitting of the South Carolina Legislature using the description which J. S. Pike gives (Mimeo-graphed Sources, pp. 16-17) and the reports given in Fleming, Vol. II, pp. 61-68. This could be done by the entire class using the class room as the legislative hall, and giving a little exercise in reconstructing the past from original sources. Another dramatization involving two or three pupils might take the form of two Southerners discussing conditions in 1865, and the same two comparing the changes that have occurred in 1877. This could properly cover the subject of labor difficulties and how they were solved, and a Negro could be introduced to bring out some of his habits and attitudes. The attempt to make the past real by means of such dramatizations would be worth while to the degree that the pupils exercised their imagination along the lines suggested by the sources. Such exercises would not require costuming or stage settings, but a certain power of visualization, a feeling for the situation, and a willingness to give expression to them.

PART II INTRODUCTION

At the close of the Civil War the Southern States were sadly impoverished. The war had resulted in great loss of life, much disease, and a chaotic social and economic condition. How the white and Negro folks felt about their changed relationships and what they did during this period of adjustment will appear when we study the documents given below.

States were left without government for several months, people and property were unprotected, and unprincipled treasury agents, some real, some pretended, came in to make illegal confiscations. During this time the victorious North was unable to agree on a plan of reconstruction for the South. Lincoln thought of the Union as unbroken and felt that it was the President's duty to get the Southern States back to their proper relation to the government. After Lincoln's assassination Johnson continued on the same theory during the summer of 1865. When Congress met in December, representatives from the South were ready to ask seats, but Congress repudiated the President's work, and began to develop a plan of its own. At first a moderate group dictated the

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terms on which the Southern States could get back into the Union. They proposed the 14th Amendment, but Tennessee alone accepted. A radical group then came into power, and a plan of military control with Negro suffrage was evolved. This was in 1867. It took some time to reorganize the states, but from 1870 all the states were represented in Congress. During the period from 1868 to 1877 the South was ruled by "Carpetbaggers," "Scalawags," and Negroes with the military units always in the background. This gave rise to the growth of such secret orders as the Ku Klux, the Knights of the White Camelia and Young Men's Democratic Club whereby the whites regained control and a "Solid South" appeared.

A cotton tax of two and one half to three cents a pound bore heavily upon the South during the years 1865, 1866, and 1867 when they were in the midst of a severe struggle to exist. In addition to this was the difficulty of getting the Negro to work with any degree of regularity. He was trying his new found freedom. The whites, too, were under the necessity of adjusting themselves to the new social and economic status of the Negro. New laws had to be framed to fit the new order with the result that the "Black Codes" were adopted. Northern political leaders misinterpreted these laws to their constituents, and they were suspended for a time but are essentially a part of the legal code in the South today.

On March 3, 1865 Congress created the Bureau of Freedmen, Refugees, and Abandoned Lands to protect the interests of the Negroes against what they thought was the danger of re-enslavement by the whites. It was this bureau that suspended the "Black Codes."

While "carpetbaggers" and Negroes ruled, the expenses of government increased, offices were multiplied, salaries increased, and costly projects undertaken which taxed the property holder often beyond his ability to pay. There was also mismanagement and corruption in the issuance of public bonds, particularly railway bonds which the states were induced to issue. Reaction came in time, the whites were restored to their former leadership, and the process was

begun of working out their problems without interference from the North.

The following documents* are given to illustrate the social and economic changes that were going on in the years between 1865 and 1877, also to enable you the better to understand these changes.

I. ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL CONDITIONS, 1865
(The Nation, Vol. I, 77. "The South as It Is," 1865. Richmond, Virginia, July 8.)
 In the shops that still stand there seem to be plentiful stocks of goods, but no customers for anything except the bare necessities of life. One readily believes the oft repeated statement, "Our people haven't any money, sir." I went into two stores this morning to make some purchases and perceived illustrations of this truth. In the first of the two I stood waiting to be served, while the shopman and a respectable looking man talked about a tobacco transaction. One addressed as "Captain," urged the other to buy of him 50 pounds of tobacco. "I haven't got a cent, and I must get home. Pay what you think is right for it."—The tobacco was such as would have commanded a dollar a pound in the North, and it was offered at 50 cents. At the second store—the article I wanted was a tobacco pouch. I noticed among the new ones a pouch of better workmanship than they, one which had evidently been in use. I asked the price of it. "Sam, what do you want for that bag of yours?" said the man to the attendant. "Well, I don't know; it was given to me; I reckon 50 cents will be about right." In almost all the Richmond shopkeepers there is an eagerness to sell which, to one accustomed to Northern traders, seems strange, and when one considers the reasons for it, quite touching—goods are cheap. Just after evacuation the city was filled full of merchandise of all kinds by Northern dealers. The people could not purchase, and the result is that many articles can be bought cheaper in Richmond today than in Baltimore or New York. "Flour," says the Whig (a Richmond newspaper), "that sold in New York on Saturday for \$7. and \$8. sold here for \$5. and meats that were selling here for 15 to 20 cents, there stood on their dignity at 25 to 35 cents." (Appleton's Annual Cyclopaedia, Vol. V, 1881-1865)

The finances of the Confederacy had reached an exhausted condition. The Treasury was empty,

* Editor's Note: Only a sampling of the documents actually used in the unit are reproduced here, since space considerations preclude giving them all.

and the government unable to turn to an available account the large resources of cotton in its possession. The money of the people had declined.—The following table shows the value of gold in this currency (Confederate) at Richmond from October 1861 to the evacuation of that city.

	For \$1.00 in gold		
1861	—	110	to
1862	—	118	to
1863	—	310	to
1864	—	2100	to
1865	—	4500	to
		6000	

(Annual Cyclopaedia, Vol. V, 29. 1865. Gov. Murphy of Arkansas, Dec. 9, 1865)

Besides the utter desolation that marked the track of war and battle, guerrilla bands and scouting parties have pillaged almost every neighborhood north of the Arkansas River, also—near the Indian boundary. It would be safe to say that two-thirds of the counties in the state are in destitute circumstances, and many will suffer for food and clothing this winter and spring unless relieved by the noble kindness of the people of the Northern States. (J. T. Trowbridge, *The South*, p. 567. 1865)

Much ill-feeling had been kept alive by the United States Treasury agents, searching the country for Confederate cotton and branded mules and horses. Many of these agents,—were mere rogues and fortune hunters. They would propose to seize a man's property in the name of the United States, but abandon the claim on the payment of heavy bribes, which of course went into their own pockets. Sometimes, having seized "C.S.A." cotton, they would have the marks on the bales changed, get some man to claim it, and divide with him the profits. Such practices had a pernicious effect, engendering a contempt for the government, and a murderous ill-will too commonly vented itself upon soldiers and Negroes.

(*Acts of Alabama*, 1872 p. 455. Quoted in Fleming, *Documentary History of Reconstruction*, Vol. I, 35)

The tax upon cotton levied and collected by the government of the years 1865, 1866, and 1867 was in our judgment most unjust and oppressive to the people of the cotton growing States, in that it was a direct tax upon industry, and imposed upon them at a time when they were prostrated and impoverished by war and the

attendant consequences;—we believe the refunding of this tax, an unequal tax, levied as it was on the industry of a majority of the States, to be only a matter of even-handed but tardy justice to those with whom the people of this State are identified, as well by ties of blood as common interest.

(*The Nation*, Vol. I, 42, "The Losses of the South." Written by a subscriber. 1865)

In calculating the severe losses which "the South" has sustained during the rebellion, it is an almost universal error to include the enfranchisement of the slaves. Four millions of slaves have been or will be liberated, each slave was worth so much before the rebellion, therefore we are told "the South" has lost so many millions of capital. A greater mistake cannot be committed. The "loss of the South" took place when capital was invested in the first Negroes; that is, so much money paid for the immigration of productive labor, which the North obtained gratis by the immigration of free white labor. Had we extirpated the whole colored population, then, indeed, the whole capital would have been lost; but why was the field hand worth \$500., or a good black worth \$1000. or \$1500.? Simply because his productive labor was worth so much. Economically speaking, there is nothing worth any money in a slave, except his productive labor, and this is not destroyed.—How then can "the South" be said to have lost the whole slave capital?—The source of wealth remains in that community as much so as the productive labor of the serfs remained in Russia after their emancipation.

II. INDUSTRIAL AND AGRICULTURAL CONDITIONS DURING RECONSTRUCTION

(*The Galaxy*, Vol. IV, 681-690. 1867. "The Poor Whites of the South," E. B. Seabrook)

The planters will decline, opportunities will open for the "poor whites" which before were closed and for which they are fitted. The development of the last two years have shown a gradual uplift from their pre-war abasement. Their services are already in demand. They will approach closer to the former planter. It will mean an emancipation of another class in the South, one that needed it, perhaps, far more than the blacks.

(*Senate Executive Documents*, 1 Sess. 39 Cong. 1865-1866. Ex. Doc. No. 2, Report of Carl Schurz, p. 27)

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The transition of the southern Negro from slavery to freedom was untarnished by any deeds of blood—But—the Negroes would not work; they left their plantations and went wandering from place to place, stealing by the way; they preferred a life of idleness and vagrancy to that of honest and industrious labor; they either did not show any willingness to enter into contracts, or if they did, showed a stronger disposition to break them than to keep them;—they had no conception of the rights freedom gave, and of the obligations freedom imposed upon them.

(*Annual Cyclopaedia*. Vol. V, 788. 1865. Quoted from the Houston, Texas, *Telegraph*, June, 1865)

We have just returned from a trip to Washington County, and found the drought had nearly ruined the corn crops, and it is estimated that only one-half a crop will be made this season. The same will prove true of the potato crop. Cotton looks well [*sic*], and we have been informed by old citizens that they have never before seen such a fine and heavy yield.—We hear loud complaints everywhere of the scarcity of hands to pick and save it.—The planters made contracts with their former slaves to remain with them and save the crops, but they proved unfaithful and deserted the first opportunity. Thousands of bales of splendid cotton will be lost in Washington County by this cause, and the neighboring counties are no better off. We have heard good judges estimate the loss by this cause throughout the state to be 40,000 bales.

(*Ibid* p. 788)

Subsequently a better spirit and a more correct understanding as to their new privileges began to prevail with the Negroes.—More than half entered into contracts for 1866 by the 25th of December, and were ready to go to work after the holidays. The contracts were various; some were for specific monthly pay, with food, clothing, medical attendance, and the use of an acre of land; others were for monthly wages and board only; others were for a share of the crops. In some instances the payment of wages was made monthly, in others quarterly, and in others the first quarter's wages were to be paid at the end of six months, and the balance at the end of the year. The plantations were

mostly cultivated by their owners, though large farms were rented both by Northern and Southern men.

(*The Galaxy*, Vol. XII, pp. 328-340, "Agricultural Labor at the South." 1871)

The Southern planter—is compelled—to depend almost entirely for labor, in the cultivation of corn, cotton, sugar-cane, and rice, upon the freedmen. They are the only class of laborers there in large numbers; they understand the labor required of them; they are habituated to the climate.—Perhaps it is well to glance at some of the chief characteristics of him.—He is indolent.—he is averse to labor, slow in his movements, and indisposed to continuous exertion. Unless watched, he is sure to remit his toil more or less, and shirk his duty in some degree. He is thievish—lacking in prudence. He rarely accumulates—He is suspicious and distrustful. These traits have grown upon him largely since the war, owing mainly to—partisan leaders and scheming politicians. He is ignorant and stupid.—He is careless—joined with his moral unreliability—depreciates his value as a laborer.—Cheerfulness is one of his distinguishing characteristics. — Nature has bestowed upon him—the gift of melody. Previous to emancipation the planter relied much on female labor, and reckoned a good "woman-hand" at about two thirds of a "full hand"; but at the present time female labor is not in great demand.—Women are more unmanageable than men.—In one respect, more than in any other, the system of labor now—differs from the ante-war method—that everyone must "hire hands."

No contract lasts longer than one year.—There is a great variety of contracts by which labor is secured.

1. "Standing wages."—a stipulated sum—say ten or fifteen dollars—per month, and—a peck of meal and $3\frac{1}{2}$ or four pounds of meat per week; and when a planter furnishes this to a laborer, he is said to "find him."
2. Working for part of the crop.—(a) Where hand receives half of what he makes, and feeds and clothes himself.
3. Give the hand a round sum of money, say \$100. and the product of three to five acres of land planted in cotton.
4. Where the proprietor rents a portion of his land to freedmen for a certain number of bales

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of cotton, "delivered at the screw," or for a certain portion of the crop.

Hiring.—Reasons for uncertainty of hands.

1. Freedmen more diffused—small planters have them as well as large.
2. Many have left the country—hang around the towns—figure in the police records.
3. Building railroads has drawn many.
4. Fewer women engage in work than formerly.
5. Many rent or buy land and farm alone or even hire other freedmen.
6. Death rate has been large—indulgence—whisky—infant mortality.
7. Mississippi, Louisiana, Texas have drawn many because of larger yield and higher wages.
8. Two or three now do what one did before the war—due to absence of judicious control, to holidays, voting days, etc.

In spite of this the cotton crop is larger, less corn is planted, more fertilizer is used. Proof lies in vast corn and bacon trade between South and West. Warehousemen receive, store, and sell the planters' cotton. They accept drafts upon planters, payable in cotton during the fall, and the banks discount these drafts at 2 or 2½% a month. This has involved many farmers in debts that may prove bankruptcy; others will come through on future crops.—To immigrants the South offers many and strong inducements, for the lands are rich and cheap, and the highest price is paid for produce of all kinds.

(J. T. Trowbridge, *A Picture of the Desolated States* p. 369)

Mississippi—made haste to pass apprentice laws, vagrant laws—designed to bring the freedman under the planter's control. "An Act to regulate the Relation of Master and Apprentice," passed in November 1865, provides that "all freedmen, free negroes, and mulattoes, under the age of eighteen, who are orphans," shall be apprenticed "to some competent and suitable person," the former owner to have the preference," that "the said apprentices shall be bound by indenture, in the case of males until they are twenty-one years old, and in the case of females until they are eighteen years old;" that said master or mistress shall have power to inflict "moderate corporal chastisement."—These extracts—show plainly enough

what ideas prevail in the late Slave States on the subject of free labor.—they are practically set aside and annulled by the military power and the Freedman's Bureau.

V. RESULTS OF ECONOMIC RECONSTRUCTION,

1877

(*Annual Cyclopaedia, New Series Vol. II, 231, 1877. Quoting from New York Commercial and Financial Chronicle*)

In the South, manufacturing, during the past season, was rather more satisfactory than in the North. Some progress was made on new enterprises, and, on the average, the running time of the mills was fuller than in the preceding year. "That section just now presents a more hopeful condition than any other portion of the country. She is virtually out of debt, her people have learned to economize, and to produce with economy-raising their own food as well as supplying the world with cotton. This year, also, labor is under control for the first season since the war, and next year will be more entirely so, permitting of further economies not heretofore possible. Cotton production will therefore increase, as in the past, and at a decreasing cost to the planter per pound." (*The Nation, Vol. XXIV, 190 South Carolina, March 21, 1877*) There seems to be nothing in the way of natural organization of the colored population into communities where they can have the freest opportunity for development. This tendency is already manifest here as well as in other places. A year or two ago a man of great influence in Georgia or Alabama (I am not certain which) started a scheme to form a negro colony in Texas. He was so far successful as to induce 1500 or more to consent to emigrate, whereupon the white capitalists and citizens expostulated with him for depleting the country of its labor, and brought influences to bear upon him to cause him to desist from his efforts. Time and his own directed exertions are operating—to elevate the black man.

(*Ibid.*, p. 305. Charleston, South Carolina, May, 1877)

Fewer negroes stand along the streets or haunt the doorways of public offices, and those who still appear in such places have a less confident manner. Naturally, too, the whites show a more cheerful and hopeful spirit, and look forward, despite the prevalent complaint of dull times and business depression, to better seasons.—

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No "carpet-bagger" can expect to compete successfully in any occupation or branch of industry in the State, unless he possesses sufficient means to engage in a comparatively independent method of earning a livelihood, as well as sufficient moral courage to withstand much contumely. I venture to say that, with rare exceptions, no professional or business man of decided Republican proclivities, though above reproach in character and social position, can hope to succeed in South Carolina, if his success depends upon local patronage. To the support of such men the Negroes cannot, and the whites will not, contribute.

(*Ibid*, Vol. XXV, 164-165. Virginia, September 8, 1877)

There was not in 1865 a fence standing between the Potomac and Gordonsville, and but few, if any, undamaged houses. When I passed Manassas Junction the other day there were a hospitable looking tavern and several houses at the station,—and well-tilled and well-fenced and smiling farming country stretched before my eyes in every direction. The only trace of the old fights was a rude graveyard filled—with "the Confederate Dead."

Some of us at the North think their minds are occupied with schemes for the assassination and spoliation of negroes.—Their minds are really occupied with making money, and the farms show it, and their designs on the negro are confined to getting him to work for low wages. His wages are low—forty cents a day and rations, which cost ten cents—but he is content with it. I saw negroes seeking employment at this rate, and glad to get it; and in the making of the bargain nothing could be more commercial, apparently, than the relations of the parties. They were evidently laborer and employer to each other, and

nothing more. On one (farm) of 2,000 acres there were, before the war, about 150 slaves of all ages.—His successor now works the plantation with 12 hired men, who see to his cattle, of which he raises and feeds large herds. His cultivation is carried on on shares by white tenants.—He laughs when you ask him if he regrets slavery. Nothing could induce him to take care of 150 men, women, and children—making heavy drafts on the meat-house and corn crib, and running up doctor's bills.

(*New York Tribune*, May 31, 1877. From a Correspondent in Columbia, S. C. E.V.S.)

A wholesome change is noticeable in and about the legislative halls. Everything is clean, orderly, and business-like. No crowds of idle, dirty negroes, infest the lobbies and passages, and the whole Capitol building has an unwonted air of respectability. The work of legislation goes forward quietly and methodically.—In the Senate about a third of the members are black, but there is no color line in the arrangement of the seats.—Mr. Hayes tries to enforce economy in public expenditures, and to secure honest, efficient officials; so does Hampton.—There is a strong tendency among the negroes—to be upon the strong side. They like to belong to the dominant party.

(*Ibid*, June 21, 1877. Gov. Hampton at Auburn, N. Y.)

It was a contest for civilization, for home rule, good government, for life itself. It was a contest waged by the people of South Carolina, not as demagogues would tell you, against northern men. It was a contest waged against carpet-baggers, and when I say carpet-bagger I mean by that, thief. We do not call any northern man,—who settles in our midst as an honest citizen, a carpet-bagger. We welcome such with open arms.

The Environment of Viewpoints

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An observing driver of an automobile can tell others how a well-constructed highway provides advantages for travel. A route which

is free from both obstructions and abrupt curves enables the driver to proceed with both encouragement and confidence. He finds that

weather with fair breezes and bright sunshine adds to his advantages in driving. Other careful drivers on the highway can contribute to his freedom from probable accidents.

Geography is one of many subjects in the list of offerings in schools and colleges. The viewpoints of citizens, classroom teachers, and school administrators contribute to the highway along which the study of geography moves. The viewpoints include:

1. a desire to investigate thoroughly
2. a willingness to change beliefs and opinions
3. an emphasis on the important influence of the present and the future
4. an attitude for making impartial statements regarding all parts of the world
5. a willingness to discuss frankly any question about which there is lack of agreement

One viewpoint belonging to the study of geography is that the investigation of surroundings and of people must be both thorough and scientific. Facts are necessary as a basis for a conclusion. In order that the investigation may be scientific, the first step would be to find the facts without any foregone conclusions. A student may judge that a discussion is upsetting to earlier beliefs, yet he should readily follow continued investigation to gain a fuller understanding. There must be a willingness to make a thorough search for facts if the findings of the inquiry are to have true worth.

Soil surveys will be used as an illustration of thorough investigations. Soil investigators can experience difficulties whenever many land owners want the published report limited to only the commendable properties of their fields. The owners may request that the writer of the report will intentionally avoid any mention of unfavorable qualities of the soil. Soil tests can be made by which both the physical and the chemical properties of any soil can be reported accurately. These tests do not say what the land will produce. Each year's crop is influenced by other important factors such as the year's weather and the farmer's planning and care.

The study of geography is encouraged whenever there is a desire to have a thorough and scientific investigation of any factor whether

in the physical or the social world. The plans and arrangements made by other persons make an individual's social world. A geography student needs to investigate all people without limitation as much as he is ready to investigate soils, water resources, or any other part of the natural environment. By acquiring the attitude of thorough investigation, he goes beyond merely making statements regarding an occupation or other undertaking. He must also get beyond the description of any area or any enterprise. He must plan for more than narration and description. These two types of composition — narration and description — are the ones which give attractive information about general conditions while omitting cause and effect. The student can hope for a thorough and scientific investigation if he persists in using explanation.

The second important characteristic of a geography student is his readiness to make changes in the interests of widespread improvement. He needs to have a broadened outlook. This will lead him from being either self-centered or desirous of limited arrangements which benefit either only himself or a special small group. As one example, the control of stream pollution may be mentioned. Some companies or individuals, whose business has much injurious waste, and many communities will have to spend more money whenever the control of stream pollution is provided. Generally, objectors either lack modern information regarding pollution or prefer greater incomes for a limited group of people. Research and records in the twentieth century furnish people with both the means of knowing about pollution and the information and devices for its control. Both of these were limited in earlier centuries.

The third viewpoint dealing with an emphasis on the present and the future follows closely the illustration of present plans for pollution control. Many years ago the statement was made that polluted water purified itself whenever it flowed two miles downstream. That may have been true before this century with its large towns and cities which dump great quantities of sewage into the waterways. The waste from today's large factories is a source of much contamination. Many American streams have been overloaded with pollution. The arrangements in this century have shifted so

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much that many statements regarding any environment made in the nineteenth century do not hold true today.

Facts with noticeably limited explanations were available before the present century. This is true for a long list of natural factors of environment including weather and climate, soil, land surface, water resources, stream behavior, rock properties, and types of plants and animals. With the more nearly complete information of the present century, the influence of natural environment on individual plans, community projects, or national undertakings can be more fully explained. In contrast, the influence of environment on people in earlier centuries is limited to more general and somewhat indefinite statements. This explains why the geography student is more handicapped with hazy explanations whenever he attempts to make a thorough investigation of events in past centuries. He finds much greater encouragement whenever he considers recent or future undertakings. For this reason, he gives more consideration to the present than to the past.

A fourth viewpoint in geography study is maintaining an attitude of impartiality toward both the people and their environment in all parts of the world. Each person needs to study causes of defects and of advantages in each part of the world. After having practiced this plan of viewing the world, the geography student will more readily see and admit shortcomings in his own community. In the same way, he will view his home state, his country, or any other part of the world. He needs to look for advantages in other countries, in other states, and in other communities as much as in his own.

This viewpoint does not mean that the geography student believes that all parts of the world are equal or alike. A person may face the whole environment of each of many parts of the world. After that thorough study, he may rightly say why he as an individual prefers one community, one state, or one nation to others. In their writings, a large fraction of geographers in western Europe and many American geographers present both the advantages and the shortcomings of all parts of the world.

Geography students have a growing tendency to avoid saying that any one part of the world is perfect or ideal for all purposes. Every person needs to have a willingness to consider disadvantages and advantages both of his own part and of every other part of the world. Whenever any person puts this attitude into practice, he becomes an exceptional type of world citizen.

The fifth viewpoint of the geography student is a readiness to have debatable topics presented for frank discussion. Another name for debatable topics is controversial issues. These questions are examples of such topics. What handicaps may follow from continuous use of hard water? What advantages follow from having highways with broad sweeping curves instead of miles of perfectly straight roads? What advantages for crop growing on sandy soils instead of clay soils? What commends lofty mountains with much bare rock as scenery in contrast to mountains having a complete cover of vegetation? A student can consider these and many other debatable questions with an attitude that truth based on investigation is reliable. He will, over many years, gain a more nearly complete understanding both of environment and of people's response to any environment.

An individual who shrinks from a thorough and scientific investigation of either natural environment or of people will have difficulties in studying geography. If he desires subjects having information familiar to him and avoids new viewpoints, he may expect difficulties in geography. If he overlooks the shortcomings of the past, he can have extreme reverence for the past. That attitude makes him less willing to develop a thorough acquaintance with the present. Geography becomes a disturbing subject for such an individual. An individual may stress only the advantages of his nearby area while he expects to consider both the limitations and the advantages of other areas. His bias for his nearby area makes him uncomfortable in studying modern geography. An individual who wants to consider only the agreeable and accepted situations prefers to memorize subjects rather than to study geography which invites thinking. Some individuals with the viewpoints which have

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been discussed have difficulty in studying geography.

An individual with uncertain viewpoints may continue investigations from which he may gradually change the beliefs and ideas which he earlier accepted. From the investigation, he will gain a more firm support for his new-found ideas and beliefs. If a person with strong opinions will continually search for substantial evidence, he may willingly modify or change his attitudes. The geography student is always challenged in learning how surroundings influence the undertakings of groups of

people. His study is also influenced by an environment which is made up of his own and others' viewpoints regarding the five attitudes which have been considered. His difficulties may be based on one or more of the viewpoints which have been discussed. If he finds geography one of his most satisfactory subjects, it may not be because he gives more time to geography study. Instead, his contacts in earlier years may have prepared him with viewpoints which are helpful to the study of geography.

Indigenous Religions in the United States

I. Unitarianism

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The United States, and one might almost say New England, served as the locus of origin for at least three major religious faiths. Though fundamentally differing from the others each may be said, however, to rest on the broad Christian ethic; and especially on the words of Jesus, the Old and the New Testaments, or other writings thought to attain equal or semi-equal status to these. These three are American Unitarianism, Christian Science, and Mormonism (although this term is not an exactly descriptive word for the faith of the Church of the Latter Day Saints). The accompanying survey will discuss the background of the developing Unitarian movement in America.

Broadly speaking, "Unitarianism" has been in existence since the days of Christ's ministry on earth. Nevertheless, since Unitarians, while maintaining great independence in judgment and action, hesitated to identify themselves as a sect until approximately a century ago, the problem of establishing a date for their origin becomes a somewhat arbitrary one. Indeed, Parrington¹ calls their denomination only "an attitude of mind rather than a creed." To what extent this is true may be revealed in the following discussion.

It has been alleged that Unitarianism is not a new religion but simply a return from corrupted doctrines of orthodox Christianity to the pure religion of the New Testament.² Thus, it has been defined as a series of beliefs based on (1) a denial of the Trinity; and (2) a humanitarian code of conduct taken from the life of Jesus of Nazareth and including profound conviction, sacred personal experience, and the exemplification of Christianity as a "way of life."³

However, in order to appreciate properly what Unitarians mean by "corrupted doctrines" it is necessary to review some of the theological struggles of the eighteen hundred years which followed Christ's earthly ministry.

Tertullian, born at Carthage about 150, is said to have been the first to introduce the term "Trinity," ushering in a theological disputation which has never entirely ceased. Subsequently the Council of Nicaea, 325, upheld the orthodox views of Athanasius in opposition to those of Arius, who had been banished as an "atheist" for his anti-trinitarian theology.⁴

During the medieval period and up to the

time of the Protestant Reformation few dared to express doubt of this orthodox opinion. Banishment, the rack, or even the stake awaited independent thought.

Martin Cellarius, the first Protestant openly to express anti-trinitarian sentiments, in 1527 maintained that Jesus of Nazareth was God only in the sense that he was filled with God's spirit.⁵ Michael Servetus, four years later, having witnessed the debauchery at Rome and read the Bible for himself, wrote "On the Errors of the Trinity" and other works. For this and other reasons he was burned at Geneva, somewhat strangely enough by the Protestant prophet Calvin, in 1553.⁶

In 1558 the Pinczow Reformed Church in Poland became anti-trinitarian, and, under the leadership of Socinus and Blandrata, issued the Racovian Catechism, the first Unitarian catechism known.⁷ Their church, however, existed for only a short time. A decade later, following the Transylvanian decree of the Diet of Torda, 1557, which secured to persons of all faiths the free exercise of their own worship, the name Unitarian appeared for the first time as a recognized title of a religious group. Communicants of the various faiths formed a union together that they would not, on the ground of religion, trouble or persecute each other. From this alliance the non-trinitarians, who survived the break-up of the league, became known as United or Unitarian.⁸

The demand for this sort of personal religious freedom in England can be traced directly to the Act of Uniformity, 1622, under which two thousand English clergymen were deprived of their income because of a failure to conform to the theology and practice of the Anglican Church.

However, the first Unitarian Chapel, distinctly known as such, was not founded until 1774. It was located in Essex Street, London. Theophilus Lindsey, on the failure of a petition for relieving clergy from the burden of subscribing to the Thirty-nine Articles, resigned his post in Yorkshire and gathered the first professedly Unitarian Church in England.¹⁰

Priestley, the great leader of Unitarian thought in England, stated their position: "We wish not to prevent the serious belief of any other doctrine, but only to remove every temp-

tation to profess a belief of what is not really believed. To continue such a temptation as this cannot surely be for the credit of the doctrine of the Trinity."¹¹ As to the character of the newly established churches, however, it has been stated that "there was a strong tendency in early Unitarianism to reduce man to a mere spectator rather than a revealer of the Glory of God."¹² It is this difference in perspective that was to distinguish the American Unitarians from those of the early English church.

In 1791 the Unitarian Book Society was organized for the distribution of sectarian literature and from then on Unitarianism became a definitely established body and force in the religious life of England. On May 25, 1825, by a most unusual coincidence, the British and Foreign Unitarian Association was organized, the very day on which the American organization was to be created.¹³

Although Dr. Priestley, having come to the United States in 1794, had founded two Unitarian Churches—Northumberland (1794) and Philadelphia (1796) both in Quaker Pennsylvania,¹⁴ American Unitarianism may be said to have been indigenous.

Jonathan Mayhew, placed at West Church, Boston, in 1747,¹⁵ is usually accepted as the first outspoken Unitarian in New England. Nevertheless, the first official acceptance on the part of a congregation was by King's Chapel (Boston), under James Freeman, elected in 1782.¹⁶ William Ellery Channing selected minister of the Federal Street Congregational Church, also of Boston, in 1803 in his essays and sermons became a staunch defender of Unitarianism.¹⁷

As yet, however, there was no definitely organized Unitarian church in New England. Indeed, "Unitarianism had not yet been driven to the break with orthodoxy but opinions were fast-ripening to distinctness."¹⁸ Curti suggests a cleavage that has existed more or less covertly within the Congregational Churches from as early as 1783.¹⁹ Gannett complains that "Our fathers, the Unitarians before (American) Unitarianism, were exposed to the pain of sudden crisis of disclosure."²⁰ "Sad and indignant"²¹ the disturbed Channing was forced to answer the attacks which were beginning to come from orthodox believers.

But a change was in the wind. In 1801 the

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First Church of Plymouth declared itself to be Unitarian by a large majority vote, the minority re-organizing themselves as the "Church of the Pilgrimage."²² The Unitarians at Plymouth held the church property nevertheless and ante-dated their possession to 1620!

Meanwhile, the selection of Henry Ware, in 1805, as Hollis Professor of Divinity at Harvard had aroused such a storm of dissension that it ended in the establishment of an orthodox Congregational seminary at Andover in 1808.²³ Moreover, Dr. Kirkland's assumption of the presidency at Harvard a few years later was likewise interpreted as a Unitarian victory.

Now the courts took a hand. When, in the "Dedham Case," 1820, the Massachusetts Supreme Court declared that seceders forfeit the rights to church property, the Unitarians at Plymouth stood vindicated and at least a third of the Congregational Churches in Massachusetts took the same step.²⁴

That these changes in the New England theological attitude were not popular with the rank and file of the citizenry may be inferred from a letter dated September 28, 1811, from a Philadelphia Unitarian to friends in Britain. He wrote "The Unitarians in Boston have been charged by the Orthodox with having practised a studied and dishonorable concealment in the early propagation of their sentiments in this country."²⁵ A Congregational minister of Boston considered that "It is the prevailing idea all over the United States that the clergy of Boston are little better than deists."²⁶ Curti himself calls Unitarianism a "watered-down version of deism."²⁷ And Parrington acidly speaks of Unitarianism as "the cult of the arrived."²⁸ Again that "those born in Boston had no need for further re-birth."²⁹ A letter from a "gentleman in Boston" to Unitarian clergymen, dated November 22, 1827, raises the question of the practical misapplication of one of the chief tenets of the sect—that of humanitarianism—as well as suggesting that Unitarians were hypocrites to boot.³⁰

On the positive side, however, the Reverend Mr. Grundy, of Manchester, England, speaks of Unitarianism in contradistinction to Trinitarianism and referring solely to the object of religious adoration. By deriving the term thus, he maintained, it would be possible to

include all groups, whether believing in the pre-existence or the simple humanity of Jesus Christ.³¹ Frothingham, a Unitarian minister, defended Unitarianism more glowingly saying that the Unitarians "deliberately substituted a rational idealism for the creed; they adopted art, humanity, literature as expression of the divine mind; they set up social morality as a means of grace."³²

Nevertheless Gannett now wrote "We could not hope to do effective work without organization. We found ourselves under the painful necessity of continuing our assistance to the propagation of tenets which we accounted false or of forming an association through which we might address the great truth of religion to our fellow men without the adulteration of erroneous dogmas.³³ . . . We wished to make a sect without sectarianism."³⁴

For reasons of clarity it becomes necessary to define our use of the word "church" as applied to the Unitarians. Up to now the term has been used as the identification solely of a local body of individual believers. Gannett's remark shows the necessity for broadening of this concept. We are about to use the term in the broader, but also the more generally accepted, sense. Thus, church is now defined as either a formal or informal type of organization which represents the leadership of the independent "churches," which exerts a collective influence in the diffusing of Unitarian knowledge and beliefs; and which promotes the interests of what Unitarians consider to be the "pure Christianity."

The organization came about in a rather oblique manner. Around 1820 a group of liberal-minded and public spirited citizens of Boston and vicinity had banded themselves into a fortnightly club which met for the discussion of social and religious subjects.³⁵ From the club roster it may easily be seen that a considerable number of these were Congregational and Unitarian ministers.³⁶ Now, early in 1825, it was proposed in this club that the Berry Street Conference of Ministers be memorialized to take steps to establish an association for the purpose of securing united action of, and by, the various Unitarian churches.³⁷

With Ezra Stiles Gannett as secretary, the Berry Street Conference, on May 25, 1825,

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constituted a new organization, the "American Unitarian Association" which was to "embrace all Unitarian Christians in the United States and diffuse the knowledge, and promote the interests of, pure Christianity."³⁸ In the preamble it was distinctly stated that this Association was to be a purely voluntary organization of churches and other religious, educational, and philanthropic societies. It was likewise recorded that in so associating themselves together the individual churches and societies had abrogated in no way any part of their independent autonomy.³⁹

The by-laws of the Association stated its purposes and powers:

- (1) To diffuse the knowledge and promote the interests of pure religion, which, in accordance with the teaching of Jesus is summed up in love to God and love to man;
- (2) To strengthen the churches which unite in the Association for more and better work in the Kingdom of God;
- (3) To organize new churches.⁴⁰

This is the body which has continued to represent Unitarian leadership in the United States to the present time and exerts the collective influence of the whole of the Unitarian Churches in America.⁴¹ It was incorporated in Massachusetts in 1847 and made a delegate body in 1885.⁴²

Thus May 25, 1825, as it was the case in England, may be considered as the date of the establishment of the Unitarian Church in the United States although the American church was entirely indigenous in origin.

A Short Bibliography for Unitarianism

Because of its comparative newness in the United States much that is found on the sect has been written by persons directly involved either in the organization of the church or in controversy surrounding it. Thus many of the following sources have primary value in the determination of the origins of Unitarianism in America.

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¹ Parrington, *Foundations of American Culture*, Vol. II, p. 327.

² Wilbur, *Our Unitarian Heritage*, p. 8.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 3.

⁴ Graves, *Encyclopedia Americana*, p. 293. Vol. 27.

⁵ Wilbur, *op. cit.*, p. 46.

⁶ *Ibid.*, pp. 51-52.

⁷ Graves, *op. cit.*, pp. 292-293.

⁸ Allen, *Unitarian Movement*, pp. 63-64.

⁹ Mellone, *Encyclopedia Britannica*, p. 709, Vol. 22.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*

¹¹ Priestley, *Tracts in Controversy*, pp. 488, 489.

¹² Griffiths, *Religion and Learning*, p. 157.

¹³ Graves, *op. cit.*, pp. 295-296.

¹⁴ Lathrop, *Encyclopedia Britannica*, p. 710. Vol. 22.

¹⁵ Cooke, *Unitarianism in America*, pp. 60-66.

¹⁶ Sweet, *Story of Religions in America*, p. 347.

¹⁷ Graves, *op. cit.*, p. 297.

¹⁸ Gannett, *Life*, p. 32.

¹⁹ Curti, *Growth of American Thought*, p. 162.

²⁰ Gannett, *op. cit.*, p. 39.

²¹ *Ibid.*, p. 40.

²² Allen, *op. cit.*, p. 149.

²³ Parkman, *Unitarianism in Boston*, pp. 12-16.

²⁴ Cooke, *op. cit.*, pp. 413-419.

²⁵ Parkman, *op. cit.*, p. 3.

²⁶ Gannett, *op. cit.*, p. 39.

²⁷ Curti, *op. cit.*, p. 531.

²⁸ Parrington, *op. cit.*, p. 328.

²⁹ *Ibid.*

³⁰ *Letter from a Gentleman*, p. 5.

³¹ Parkman, *op. cit.*, p. 5.

³² Frothingham, *Boston Unitarianism*, p. 262.

³³ Gannett, *op. cit.*, p. 103.

³⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 78.

³⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 46.

³⁶ *Unitarian Yearbook*, 1941-1942, p. 21.

³⁷ Gannett, *op. cit.*, p. 47.

³⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 48.

³⁹ *Unitarian Yearbook*, p. 22.

⁴⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 21.

⁴¹ Graves, *op. cit.*, p. 297.

⁴² *Unitarian Yearbook*, p. 23.

The Teachers' Page

HYMAN M. BOODISH

Dobbins Vocational-Technical School and The Junto Adult School, Philadelphia, Penna.

Knowledge—What Kind—How Much— To Whom

One of the most poignant problems concerning modern education, about which there has been a great deal of critical writing, centers around the importance of knowledge. Knowing the facts is a key to understanding and wisdom. However, for those of us delegated with the responsibility of imparting "learning to others, the task is to have the recipients acquire not merely knowledge, but the right kind of knowledge—and to use it wisely. Just what and how much knowledge, and to whom it should be imparted is one of the crucial problems of education. For the right kind of knowledge may be different for different people, particularly since knowledge, like the universe itself, is limitless, and the time available to acquire it is limited.

Dr. Richard Ballou, writing on "Knowledge and the Education of Free Peoples" in THE EDUCATIONAL FORUM (May, 1954), expresses this thought in the following passage:

"... The knowledge available today and the rate at which it is being revised or replaced make it impossible for anyone to keep abreast of anything but the most limited specialties.... the day when one's knowledge could be broad in the sense of its being compendious is probably gone forever."

Dr. Ballou also discusses a number of fallacies concerning knowledge which have characterized education. One of these concerns "the notion that the brain is a kind of machine which functions after it is supplied with the raw materials . . . that is, the facts . . ."

. . . Mere physical exposure to statements of fact does not induce automatically, or even under the most expert coaxing, thinking in children. Their lives are too full of more immediate and urgent problems to think about. The intricate relationship between

the purposes and perceptions of young people all but precludes the development of knowledge by the 'fact first, thought later' fallacy. The whimsical insight of the child who asks, 'Why think about this at all?' is all too often a valid criticism.

The preceding issue of "The Teachers' Page" discussed in some detail Elmo Roper's division of our society into seven groupings. Toward the end of the discussion we raised the question about the kind of education our schools should provide for those students who most likely will fall into the largest group—the seventy-five million politically *inert* and *inarticulate*. Breaking that question down, we might ask: "What kind and how much knowledge should the schools have these students acquire in order to make them effective political citizens?" This question, of course, fallaciously assumes that knowledge alone—whether of government, of politics, of economics, or of all combined—will make one an effective citizen. Certainly, our schools, particularly our secondary schools, and also our colleges and universities, operate on that assumption. We teach the facts of history, economics, politics and government; give examinations which test the student's knowledge of facts; and believe (or hope) that equipped with at least seventy per cent of the knowledge we try to impart (for seventy is passing), the young man or young woman will venture forth ready to do battle for good government. Knowledge alone, unfortunately, does not necessarily lead to effective citizenship. There is something in the total make-up of an individual which determines how active and articulate he will be politically. Furthermore, the very ability to acquire knowledge and to use it intelligently, which after all is an important ingredient in effective citizenship, is not the same for all of our students. Dr. Ballou writes:

"It is obvious that there are limits to what

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an individual can learn, and, therefore, can know. Training, experience, intelligence, and a variety of personal traits of a temperamental nature affect the individual's ability to acquire knowledge"

This statement explains, in part, why we do have seventy-five million people who are politically inert. Is it the school's responsibility to make them politically active? Or, is the task too difficult to achieve? Is there a need for a more realistic concept of what can be expected of the politically inert citizen concerning the degree to which he can participate in democratic government? At the same time, should the schools adopt a more realistic concept regarding the kind and quantity of knowledge the students, who are potentially politically inactive, can assimilate? This seems to be all the more imperative in view of the increasing complexity of current governmental responsibilities and current local, national, and international issues which confront our government. Writing about this same theme in another connection, Dr. Ballou states:

. . . American education must recognize two important facts about contemporary life. First, the mere size of essential governmental units prevents direct, intimate association between human beings and their government, although the need for the active allegiance of people to the governmental process is, if anything, greater than it has ever been before. Second the complexity of the issues confronting the government at all levels, and the frequent necessity of swift, decisive action reduce to a minimum point any individual's grasp of even the most important public issues.

Raising questions is of course easier than answering them. It should not be construed that the present discussion is an argument for the elimination of all knowledge in the education of the potentially politically inert citizen. We agree with Dr. Ballou's concluding statements that:

. . . Knowledge is not the sole or even the supreme end of existence, nor is knowledge a guarantee that man will act wisely or act at all. It does enable him to judge the consequences of his own actions and it is, therefore, the handmaiden of responsible persons.

As such it is indispensable to the people of the United States, as they seek to make the more perfect democracy and as they set about the task of their newly acquired global responsibilities.

Our question about the kind of knowledge, how much of it, and to whom it should be imparted is still pertinent.

* * * * *

A timely study of the function of Congressional Committees appeared in THE AMERICAN POLITICAL SCIENCE REVIEW, June, 1954. The article, "The Congressional Committee: A Case Study," by Ralph K. Huitt, of the University of Wisconsin, dealt with the following aspects of the topic:

- I Some Hypotheses about the Committee
- II Roles of Committee members
- III The Committee as a Fact Finding Agency
- IV Influence of Group Ideology on Fact Perception

The committee hearing taken for the case study was that conducted in 1946 by the Senate Committee on Banking and Currency on the question of extending price control. A significant conclusion drawn by Dr. Huitt is the following:

. . . The members of this Committee did not sit as legislative judges to discover an abstract general interest, nor did they seem concerned with presenting a balanced debate for public consideration. On the contrary, most of them did take sides. The Committee hearings clearly were used as a public platform for opposing groups with which the senators identified. A great deal of information was received from interested groups, which the senators accepted or rejected in accordance with their preconceived notions of the facts. What was made perfectly clear was that the groups opposing price control were more numerous and more militant than the groups supporting it. This was, of course, crucial information

If the above finding is correct, and if it applies to all committee hearings, the following question is in order: "How representative of the country at large (including the seventy-five million politically inert and inarticulate) are the groups which appear before legislative committees?"

It is a recognized fact that "Congress cannot function today without lobbyists."¹ Congressional committees, and Congress itself, have the responsibility, like the statistician, of weighing representation behind the lobbyist groups that appear before them in support of, or against proposed legislation.

A direct corollary, in question form, stemming from the above discussion is: "How can the politically inarticulate be made articulate, or at least given adequate representation in Congress?" One aspect of this problem has been brought to the attention of Congress during the last session, by Congressman Younger of California. He believes that the Federal Government should concentrate some of its efforts on the problems of city people. His suggestion is that a new "Department of Urbiculture" should be established.

Related to this whole problem of adequate representation of the politically inarticulate is the apathy of those in our population who can be articulate—the intellectuals who are so absorbed in their own personal pursuits that they remain aloof from the "turmoil" of politics.

A good discussion related to this problem appeared in the same issue of THE AMERICAN POLITICAL SCIENCE REVIEW, referred to previously. The article is entitled "Public Opinion and the Intellectuals." Dr. Francis Wilson, the author, speaks of these intellectuals as a group.

. . . characterized by specialized study and function; they have gathered information, and by the logic of their professional status they use such information to make judgments on the world around them. For long centuries they have sat in judgment on the popular mind. . . . The intellectual has often seemed to say: 'You must forgive us if we seem a little proud, and if we feel that the power of organized society should be largely in our hands. You must forgive us if we disdain the ideas of the common man, because when the common man agrees with us we will like him. We want to remake him in our own image, if only to the extent that he is willing to accept our leadership when important questions of public policy are

involved. We are not opposed to freedom, but we feel more capable than other men of defining freedom and justice.'

Another significant characterization about some intellectuals is their attitude toward our mass communication media, which are so vital in molding public opinion today. This group includes persons who, for example, seem to take pride in not owning a television set. The following excerpt describes this group well:

. . . the intellectuals of our time, both in Europe and America, feel themselves isolated from systems of mass communication. They know little about it as a technical subject, and they have felt that the media suitable for a mass culture are unsuited for the expression of high humanistic values.

Techniques in Teaching

The UNITED NATIONS REVIEW, August, 1954, carried a book review of *Education in Art* by Henri Matisse. The review contained a brief discussion of "group painting." The technique is of interest not because it brings about masterpieces in art, but because it allows for self expression and encourages children to work together and to learn from one another. Although of primary interest to teachers of art, group painting has in it elements that can be adapted into the teaching of the social studies. For those not familiar with this technique and the spirit behind it, we quote from the UNITED NATIONS REVIEW:

. . . A subject is discussed in class. Each child paints an individual picture of his conception of the subject. The children criticize all the works and finally select one to be made by the group on a much larger scale. A producer of the entire work is selected who divides the canvas into sections and assigns children according to their preference to do a part of the painting. Through this cooperative work the children learn to conform to simple group rules. Since there is no demand for uniformity of performance, there is scope for the bright and the less-bright children to play their parts.

Mr. Sam Black of Jordanhill Training College, Glasgow, Scotland, says of group painting that it gives the child:

. . . the feeling of being accepted, of being one of the team, a necessary feeling,

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but lacking in systems which emphasize weakness instead of providing and establishing growing confidence. Children learn from one another through the close cooperation of group work and benefit from the stimulus of contributing to a large whole. The large scale of group paintings, larger than one child could paint individually, give a fine sense of achievement and provide for sensuous enjoyment of big shapes and rich colors.

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Keeping Up-To-Date With Taxes

The entire issue of *CURRENT HISTORY*, August, 1954, is devoted to the subject of United States Tax Policy. The areas covered include:

- Taxation Before 1914
- The Graduated Income Tax
- Corporate Taxes
- A National Sales Tax
- Excise Taxes
- State and Local Taxes
- Financial Demands on Government
- Tax Policy: 1954
- Tax Address by President Eisenhower
- Democratic Tax Proposals

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Things To Think About

"Do you have a guilty need to work all the time? Some people do and it's a reason why they often go down hill and die soon after retiring," says Dr. George J. Wayne, Los Angeles psychiatrist. For such guilt-driven people, work is often an unrecognized method of satisfying their aggressive feelings. . . ."

(*Today's Health*, August, 1954).

What Is New In Television

A new series of programs that should be of interest to teachers who wish to enlarge their students' concept of the social studies is "The Search" which had its debut over C.B.S., Sunday, October 16, 1954, at 4:30-5:00 p.m., eastern standard time. The series will endeavor to reveal "the vital social and scientific discoveries made by university research groups throughout the country." The first program presented, in dramatic form, research into the causes and cure of stuttering as conducted by the Speech Clinic of the State University of Iowa.

Mr. Irving Gitlin, director of Public Affairs for the Columbia Broadcasting System and

producer of "The Search" writes of the program:²

"The range and diversity of material covered is tremendous (robot machines of the future at M.I.T.; noise and health at U.C.L.A.; psychiatry at Tulane; new approaches to teaching English at Michigan, to mention a few). We have tried to capture some of the feel of the work—the quest for knowledge and the attempt to find solutions to problems that beset us. 'The Search,' is an optimistic series because underlying it is the search for truth, and the university people with whom we have had warm and interesting contact have indicated to us the hope for the future in all areas of human development.

"Despite the vast range of activities covered to date, we have not yet begun to scratch the surface. Because this is a film series, because of the technique used, certain extremely important areas of university activities have not yet been touched. In attempting to create a balanced series of programs it has frequently been necessary to neglect similar projects at other universities of equal stature and importance.

"'The Search,' then, is a sampling of some of the significant research activities of leading American universities."

* * * * *

The following comment on educational trends was received from Alice M. Haussman of Whitefish Bay H. S., Milwaukee:

ARE "PROGRESSIVE" TEACHERS METHOD MAD?

"Will the wigwam committee assemble in this corner?"

"Warriors, tone down the beat of your drums!"

After several weeks the novel dramatic assignments to the history classes of the "progressive" school have become less novel and less dramatic to restless students and the weary instructor. And how much actual knowledge about Indian culture has been gleaned? In the "learning by doing" method which is interspersed by a bus trip here and a bus trip there it is inevitable that an out-of-proportion emphasis is placed on certain phases of history which means too many blank spots exist in a student's mind preventing the building up of the over-all view that is necessary for gaining perspective.

Why should the idea be planted that there is a royal road to learning? What is wrong with being prepared to know that sheer hard work and the struggle involved in the process of acquiring knowledge is a necessary accompaniment in knowing the joy of learning?

In our world where news is read to us, where analysts tell us what to think about that news, where pictures take the place of the written word, where magazines condense the condensed articles, and books are stripped of their style by magazines giving the mere skeleton of the plot (and there are so few plots!) isn't it more essential than ever to open the mind in school and keep it active by teaching fundamentals through the world of books? Isn't it more essential than ever to direct students to gain insight from reading without one hundred and

one intermediates? By this I am not proposing the abolishing of visual education programs and the scorning of supplementary devices that present additional information and pave the way for deeper appreciations. But why not direct these devices toward further reading and study? For example, a movie on the life of Benjamin Franklin serves its real purpose if it is used to motivate the reading of his *Autobiography* or associated biographies.

Has "progressive" teaching created more confusion in a tumultuous world with the loss of the art of reflective thinking? Has the pace of projects led to shallow conclusions?

About the answer I can only reflect!

¹ Estes Kefauver and Jack Levin, *A Twentieth Century Congress*, New York, 1947.

² *New York Times*, 10-17-54.

Visual and Other Aids

IRWIN A. ECKHAUSER

Washington Junior High School, Mt. Vernon, New York

VEC News Filmstrips bring you the latest news every Monday morning. There is a complete Teacher's Guide with every VEC filmstrip, in three vocabularies: Primary, Intermediate, Secondary. It has no objectionable material. It helps to build independent reading in newspapers, periodicals, and better listening habits for radio and TV. You receive 35 News filmstrips and 35 study filmstrips, owning and keeping all 70 for future use. They correlate easily with Social Studies and make for better teaching. For cost and details of this worthwhile service write to VEC Inc., 2066 Helena St., Madison, Wis.

FILMS

Man and His Culture, 15 min., sound, black and white, sale, Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Wilmette, Ill.

This film tells about the many different ways in which people live together. It shows how the study of different cultures has greatly broadened our understanding of human nature. The

film first emphasizes the great variety of ways in which people live. The variations are caused by differences in physical environment and, most of all, by differences in historical experience. All groups have built up their own way of living together, satisfying to the individual in that group, which is called the culture of the group. We see how cultures are constantly changing through interaction on each other and through new inventions and discoveries. Yet there is always opposition to culture changes. We see an old lady objecting to the shorts her grand-daughter wears; business and laboring men objecting to new machinery, and an expert objecting to changes in his domain. But new ways gradually take hold, although the basic mores change very slowly. The mores provide fairly stable, long-range goals for the people within a culture. The film ends by pointing out that a study of the world's cultures is a way to better understanding of human nature.

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The film is recommended for high school and college use in social studies, problems of democracy, sociology, and anthropology. In addition, the film should be valuable to adult groups interested in fostering a broader and more tolerant understanding of human beings everywhere.

JOHN F. NORDEN
Guest Reviewer

Public Schools
Newark, N. J.

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American Frontier. 29 min. Free. American Petroleum Institute, 50 W. 50 St., New York, N. Y.

Depicts the discovery of oil in North Dakota's Williston Basin and its meaning to the surrounding country and the nation.

It Never Rains Oil. 15 min. Color. Free. American Petroleum Institute.

Through cartoon explanation of percentage of oil depletion. Shows what might happen if oil and its products were removed from our daily lives.

The Road to Canterbury. 2 reels. 23 min. Rent or sale. British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York, N. Y.

Shows the great Roman thoroughfare of the medieval Pilgrims described in Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales*.

American Farmer. 28 min. Color. Free. Ford Film Library, 16440 Michigan Ave., Dearborn, Mich.

Story of a modern farmer and the changes wrought in his life because of the mechanization and scientific farming.

Asian Earth. 22 min. Color. Sale. Atlantis Productions, Inc., Box 8666, Hollywood 46, Cal.

Interprets the life of a peasant family in India, exemplifying the agricultural life of Asia, her peoples, and their problems.

Northwest Frontier Province of Pakistan. 20 min. Color. Rental. Kinesis Inc., 566 Commercial St., San Francisco, Cal.

Geographical orientation and map study; community in transition from nomadic to agricultural mode of existence; way of life in a settled agricultural village; urban development in Peshawar.

They Planted a Stone. 27 min. Rental. British Information Services.

Shows the transforming of Sudan into a rich country by harnessing the Nile.

This is Pakistan. 24 min. Color. Sale. Hollywood Film Enterprises Inc., 6060 Sunset Blvd., Hollywood, Cal.

Depicts East and West Pakistan, jute and cotton industries, northwest frontier provinces, Khyber Pass, Karachi, Lahore, Peshawar, Dacca, etc.

Freedom to Read. 10 min. Rental. Center for Mass Communications, 1125 Amsterdam Ave., New York 25, N. Y.

Struggle for freedom of inquiry and expression developed in historical perspective, using portraits, prints, and documents from the past.

Charley Martin, American. 20 min. Teaching Film Custodians, Inc. 25 W. 43 St., New York, N. Y.

An excerpt from "A Medal for Benny." The awarding of a Congressional Medal of Honor posthumously provides the setting for the father to speak on the point that heroes can come from all sorts of homes, his own being an extremely modest one.

Berlin Airlift. 20 min. Rental. TFC.

An excerpt from "The Big Lift." Newsreel shots of the Russian blockade of Berlin; giant U. S. Air Force planes arrive at Frankfort to fly supplies into the city.

FILMSTRIPS

Program for the Nation. 35 frames. Wayne Univ. Audio Visual Consultation Bureau, Detroit, Mich. Rental.

Stresses need for understanding international relations and such domestic problems as housing, education, social security, health, and welfare.

Uneasy Peace in Asia, 57 frames, black and white, \$2.50, Office of Educational Activities, The N. Y. Times, Times Sq., New York 36, N. Y.

Presents the problems of free Asia's defense and security in the uncertain peace following the cease-fire in Indo-China and Korea. Traces the developments in Asia through World War II and the Korean and Indo-Chinese conflicts to today's crisis, when free Asia is confronted by the rising power of Communist China and Russia.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

DAVID W. HARR

Head, Department of Social Studies, Abraham Lincoln High School, Philadelphia, Pa.

The Juvenile Offender, Perspective and Readings. By Clyde B. Vedder. New York: Doubleday and Company, 1954. Pp. xii, 510. \$6.00.

Admitting the difficulty of any hard and fast definition of "juvenile delinquency" Professor Negly K. Teeters, Temple University, (in a foreword) sets the stage for a consideration of the problem surrounding the young offender by the submission of these two basic questions: (1) Can the delinquent be spotted in his early years either by his aggressive or otherwise emotional behavior or by physical constitutional traits? and (2) How can we treat the potential or incipient juvenile delinquent once he is spotted so as to divert his approved behavior patterns into constructive channels?

It is the purpose of *The Juvenile Offender* to try to answer these questions.

Dr. Clyde B. Vedder, University of Florida, has compiled approximately sixty pertinent papers from leading journals of crime and punishment and social science research by outstanding authors. He himself has written thorough introductions for the thirteen sections into which the volume is divided. Consequently the book can be used as a text or in conjunction with a textbook in the field. It probably would be most effective in the latter usage although its scope and organization is such that very few subjects in the gamut of social service are omitted.

The thirteen sections deal with "Extent of Juvenile Delinquency," "Economic Conditions," "Gangs," "Probation," "Community Responsibility," "Special Personality and Behavior Problems," and the like. Professor Vedder's concise and revealing introductions thus constitute a panorama of the present social scene and the area may be studied with the contemporary problems approach.

This reviewer found the parts referant to Juvenile Gangs, Sex, Comic Books, and Institutional Reformation particularly deft and appropriate.

KENNETH V. LOTTICK

Willamette University
Salem, Oregon

The Structure of American Industry: Some Case Studies. Edited by Walter Adams, Ph.D., Associate Professor of Economics, Michigan State College, With an Introduction by Edward S. Mason, Ph.D., Dean, Graduate School of Public Administration, Harvard. Revised Edition. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1954. Pp. xvii, 590. \$5.75.

In reviewing a work of this scope by a number of different authors, it is impossible for the reviewer to do little more than touch here and there upon the work under consideration.

Agriculture, which may be said to be our oldest and most fundamental industry, is rightfully taken first. While Americans have invented and made use of agricultural machinery which has astounded the world, the majority of farm-folk in all too many localities do not possess the basic home conveniences. Especially is this true in the Ozarks and in the Southern Appalachian region. The share-croppers of the South illustrate another depressed group. All this in the land of the gang-plow, the combine, and the cotton-picker! Unfavorable topography, resulting in marginal land, may be partly responsible for this condition, but there are other contributing factors.

Prices of farm commodities are usually determined on free markets. If, however, government price support and acreage limitation are in effect, agriculture can no longer be considered as highly competitive. Opposition to

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price-setting for farm products comes, first of all, from farmers themselves. This is because they fear being discriminated against. The consumers of farm products tend to be in opposition because of a belief that they can get these commodities more cheaply under competitive conditions.

In times of depression, farmers are inclined to look askance at direct payment as a relief measure. To these high-spirited agriculturists, this procedure appears marvelously like a dole.

The transition from handicraft to factory production of textiles began about a century and a half ago. This was in New England where the early development was favored by climatic conditions, water power, mechanical skill, and accumulation of capital. Toward the close of the century, however, as the South began to recover from the devastating effects of the Civil War, that once-unwilling part of the Union underwent a rapid expansion of industrialization, including a great development in spinning and weaving.

Today, the cotton textile industry, while very important, is only one division of a major industrial group having to do with conversion of natural and synthetic fibers into various products. Still, cotton accounts for the preponderant portion of our total fiber production. This preponderance, nevertheless, is gradually being reduced.

Chapter Five informs the reader that the steel industry in the United States is the most stupendous in the world. In fact, its magnitude is such that its plant capacity is more than double that of all Iron Curtain Countries combined. Iron and Steel corporations have figured prominently in "trust-busting" activities, so-called. The Sherman Anti-Trust Act was passed with the idea of limiting the power of trusts in the United States.

Owing to the threat of World War I, and the onset of war itself, the case against the U. S. Steel Company was not decided by the Supreme Court until 1920. By that time, much of the early zeal for "trust-busting" had considerably declined. By a vote of 4 to 3, the decision was against dissolution. The Court decided that mere size was no offense.

After 1920, U. S. Steel continued to dominate the industry, although its percentage control

over the entire industry was declining. The corporation remained large enough to keep its competitors in line without any display of force. "Friendly competition" which had paid big dividends in the past, continued to be the fundamental characteristic of the industry.

Other chapters deal with the following-named topics: The Bituminous Coal Industry, Residential Construction, Chemicals, Petroleum, Automobiles, Cigarettes, Motion Pictures, The Tin Can Industry, Air Transport, The Newspaper Industry, Public Policy in a Free Enterprise Economy, and Organized Labor in a Free Enterprise Economy.

J. F. SANTEE

Vancouver, Washington

American Thought: A Critical Sketch. By Morris R. Cohen. Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press, 1954. Pp. 360. \$5.00.

Morris R. Cohen was one of the most profound and creative of American thinkers. During his lifetime his great gifts were recognized by his students and associates, and by intellectuals in many fields of thought. Since his death in 1947, many of his essays and critical notes have been published in book form, including *Reason and Law* (1950) and a fine autobiographical work, *A Dreamer's Journey* (1949). His reputation grows with the years, as his admirers multiply and as the many facets of his extraordinary mind become more manifest.

Mr. Cohen had originally planned to publish a book on contemporary American thought in 1926. During the remaining twenty-one years of his life he accumulated a "vast conglomeration of essays and lecture notes" on this subject. The present volume, edited by Felix S. Cohen, includes nine chapters which Morris Cohen reviewed and approved for publication in 1946. They are uneven in length and in quality. The longest and best deal with "Legal Thought," "Aesthetics," and "General Philosophy." In spite of the title, these essays make no pretense at covering the field of American thought; rather they relate to certain aspects of this complex theme in which Mr. Cohen was particularly interested. Every page contains stimulating and often original reflections. Incomplete though it is, this book is an example

of American critical thought at its best.

In the early chapters Mr. Cohen considers the reasons for the anti-intellectual temper of American life and the popular indifference to history and to ideas. His chapter on legal thought would have been even more important if his own great contributions had been included. He regards Justice Oliver Wendell Holmes as "by far the greatest legal historian that this country has produced." John Dewey, in his opinion, is "unquestionably the pre-eminent figure in American philosophy." Other American philosophers who are given special attention are John Fiske, Chauncey Wright, William T. Harris, Charles S. Peirce, Josiah Royce, William James, and George Santayana. The discussion of three prevalent trends in modern American philosophy—idealism, pragmatism, and neo-realism—is particularly good.

Cohen finds that we have failed "to develop an original and vigorous political philosophy to meet our unique political experience." American philosophy has had little influence on "the general thought of the country" or upon "the world's thought." It has been afflicted with "intellectual anemia." American philosophers "fall to splashing in the epistemologic bog," and because of their "narrowness of professional philosophical interest" they have often not grasped "the wider implications of philosophic issues."

In view of his sophisticated insights into the nature and limitations of critical thinking in America, it is particularly regrettable that Mr. Cohen did not live to complete a final chapter on the outlook for American thought. Undoubtedly his comments would have been constructive and penetrating.

NORMAN D. PALMER

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Moscow and Chinese Communists. By Robert C. North. Palo Alto, California: Stanford University Press, 1953. Pp. xv, 306. \$5.00.

International Communism has achieved a major victory in China. The ideology looks forward from there. In this volume, the ways and means whereby this victory was achieved are excellently analyzed.

China's history has been a varied one. Through the nineteenth century she fell under

the covetous eye of the West, destined for ultimate partition. That such did not occur can be considered something of an historical accident. The Powers destroyed China's historic continuity, and had no substitute to erect in its place. Relations between China and the West deteriorated pronouncedly during World War I, and in the period immediately following that holocaust.

The Chinese needed assistance. Divided within as she was, between monarchists and republicans, with local war lords exercising undue power, she could move in any one of several directions. Perhaps two alternatives of moment faced the nation: rapprochement with the West, or a gravitation toward new spheres. The USSR was watchful, and had agents at the first meeting of the Chinese Community Party in 1921. Earlier they had contacted Sun Yat Sen, and, by 1923, their role had become important. The Kuomintang was reorganized, a constitution appeared, as did the Whampoa Military Academy, with Chiang Kai-shek as Commandant.

Thanks to Chiang, by late 1927 Soviet influence in China appeared to be passing, and was apparently liquidated in an official sense. Diplomatic relations were broken between China and the Soviet Union and were not restored until 1932. Meantime, rural soviets and Mao Tse-tung appeared on the scene. Mao Tse-tung certainly became the major leader of the Chinese Communists within a decade of Chiang's turning against the group.

Most of the remainder of Mr. North's volume is an historical account of internal and foreign developments climaxing in the establishment of the People's Republic of China in 1949. He also gives considerable attention to world reaction on this significant event. The People's Republic is characterized "both as a government and as a weapon for class warfare...." Recognition by the Soviet Union and the satellite states came quickly. Whither it will take China's 450,000,000 remains to be seen.

Prophetic and timely words, dire but patently true, open the author's concluding chapter:

"The Communist challenge to free Asia and the West is the more dangerous according to how much it is oversimplified.... In many parts of Asia the tendency is to pre-

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tend that an essentially hostile, totalitarian China does not exist. . . .

"History suggests that the Communist sweep is not likely to be stopped through the capsule formula of bombs, embargoes, and the arming of Chiang Kai-shek. . . . He who believes otherwise may well discover himself one day to have been the victim of a chimera. . . .

The volume also contains an excellent bibliography, reflective of Mr. North's wide personal experiences and interviews, and exhaustive within the limits of available material. It is very well indexed.

CLIFFORD C. MONTGOMERY

University of Miami
Coral Gables, Florida

World History For A Better World. By William Lee Neff and Mabel Gertrude Planer. New York: The Bruce Publishing Company, 1953. Pp. xxii, 818. \$4.36.

This text is written to make world history a dynamic force in the lives of today's high school students. The authors seek to put knowledge to work in a most practical manner so that students, through understanding man's successes and failures in the past, may help create the better world of the future.

The text is written in genuinely high school level and is provided with unusually effective teaching and learning aids. Each unit is introduced with a specially prepared full-page drawing depicting the human rights theme of the text in its relation to the main events to be covered in the unit.

Student interest is kept at a high level by relating the material directly to life today. This text includes marginal headings which makes reading and references easy, numerous illustrative helps and well chosen photographs, drawings and cartoons are included in this splendid book.

DAVID W. HARR

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The High School Student: A Book of Cases. By John W. M. Rothney. New York: The Dryden Press, Inc., 1953. Pp. xv, 271. Paper, \$1.90.

For those needing a body of case materials to practice on in the study of student counsel-

ing, this book should prove useful. Its purpose is merely to make such case materials available, not to present or evaluate the methods of counseling.

An introductory chapter on the methods of studying students, and a concluding chapter on principles, problems, and methods of case study give the general setting. The main body of the book consists of the case data on twenty-seven high school students, a sample from the Wisconsin Counseling Study begun in 1948. The cases are grouped thus: The Troubled Ones, The Ones in Trouble, The Happy Ones, The Physically Handicapped, The Quiet Ones. They are not clinical cases, but run-of-the-mill adolescents thought to be typical of those whom teachers and counselors will meet in all but completely rural or very metropolitan communities. Suggested discussion questions are included to help in analyzing each case, but for the most part the methods as well as the answers, if any, are left to the reader.

WAYNE C. NEELY

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Frederick, Md.

HELPFUL CLASSROOM AIDS ARTICLES

"Developing Effective Home Rooms," by John W. McFarland. *The School Review* LXI (October, 1953).

"Problems and American History," by Jay Williams. *Social Education* XVII (October, 1953).

"Parents ask Questions about Public Education," prepared by John W. Studebaker, Chairman. *National Parent-Teacher*, XLVIII (November, 1953).

"Can Textbooks Be Subversive?" by William E. Spaulding. *The Educational Record*, XXXIV (October, 1953).

"The Hot Wire-Tapping Debate for and against," by Senators Homer Ferguson and Wayne Morse, *Newsweek*, January 11, 1954.

New York Times Magazine, 3 articles on U. S. military and foreign policy. By Chester Bowles, February 28, 1954; Senator William Knowland, March 21, 1954; Dean Acheson, March 21, 1954.

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- Understanding The Japanese Mind.* By James Clark Moloney. New York: Philosophical Library, 1954. Pp. xv, 252. \$3.50.
- The Development of the Negro Religion.* By Ruby F. Johnston. New York: Philosophical Library, 1954. Pp. ix, 202. \$3.00.
- Body, Mind and Creativity.* By J. Herbert Blackhurst. New York: Philosophical Library, 1954. Pp. xvi, 186. \$3.00.
- Music Therapy.* By Edward Podolsky. New York: Philosophical Library, 1954. Pp. 335. \$6.00.
- The Juvenile Offender.* By Clyde B. Vedder. Garden City, New York: Doubleday and Company, 1953. Pp. xxvii, 418. \$5.00.
- Freedom From Insecurity.* By Hugo E. Czerwonky. Washington, D. C.: Public Affairs Press, 1954. Pp. xii, 198. \$3.50.
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- Civilization, Ancient and Medieval.* By Nicholas A. Weber and John L. White. Washington, D. C.: The Catholic University Press, 1953. Pp. xxiii, 367. \$5.00.
- The Rescue and Achievement of Refugee Scholars.* By Norman Bentwick. The Hague: Martinus Nijhoff, 1953. Pp. vii, 107. \$3.00.
- International Economic Papers No. 3.* Edited by Allan T. Peacock, Ralph Turvey, Elizabeth Henderson. New York: Macmillan Co., 1954. Pp. 255. \$3.50. Paper Bound.
- Skills in Social Studies.* Edited by Helen McCracken Carpenter. Washington, D. C.: National Council for Social Studies, 1954. Pp. xiii, 282. \$3.50. Paper Bound.
- Twenty-fourth yearbook of the National Council for Social Studies.
- The Social Economics of Agriculture.* By Wilson Gee. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1954. Pp. xxiv, 616. \$6.50.
- A Primer of Statistics for Political Scientists.* By V. O. Key, Jr. New York: Thomas Y. Cromwell Company, 1954. Pp. vi, 209. \$3.00.
- Your Marriage and Family Living.* By Paul H. Landis. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1954. Pp. xx, 388. \$3.20.
- Mass Media and Education.* Edited by Nelson B. Henry. Chicago, Illinois: The University of Chicago Press, 1954. Pp. xii, 290. \$4.00.
- Sociology.* By George A. Lundberg, Clarence C. Schrag, Otto N. Larsen. New York: Harper Brothers, 1954. Pp. vi, 740. \$6.00.
- Sociology.* By Emory S. Bogardus. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1954. Pp. xvii, 616. \$5.00.
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- Urban Behavior.* By Gordon Ericksen. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1954. Pp. xxi, 482. \$4.75.
- Liberian Odyssey, The Autobiography of F. A. Price.* New York: Pageant Press, 1954. Pp. xii, 260. \$7.50.
- Ting Hsien. A North Rural Community.* By Sidney D. Gamble. New York: Institute of Pacific Relations, 1954. Pp. xxi, 472. \$6.50.
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- These Were the Women, U. S. A. 1776-1860: The Story of Women Who Helped Make American Culture.* By Mary Ormsbee Whittton. New York: Hastings House, 1954. Pp. ix, 288. \$3.75.
- George Washington's America.* By John Tebbel. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1954. Pp. Part 5, 478. \$5.00.
- The Spring of Civilization: Periclean Athens.* Edited by Charles Alexander Robinson, Jr. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1954. Pp. 464. \$7.50.
- The Harmony Society, A 19th Century American Utopia.* By Christiana F. Knoedler. New York: Vantage Press, 1954. Pp. xxvii, 160. \$3.00.
- This New World: The Civilization of Latin America.* By William Lyth Schurz. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1954. Pp. x, 429. \$6.00.
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